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SCHOOL BOARDS *in Action*

CHILDREN—*thru public schools they have their opportunities for a fair start in life. Ultimately, the school board decides whether that start is an excellent one or far below America's ideals.*

Photograph by
Public Schools of Des Moines, Iowa

SCHOOL BOARDS *in Action*

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION FOR WOMEN
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Dept. of Extension
SERVICE.
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TWENTY-FOURTH YEARBOOK

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FOREWORD

If we paid no more attention to our plants than we have to our children, we would now be living in a jungle of weeds.—Luther Burbank.

The success of boards of education, and to a great extent of public education, reflects the care with which the public selects board members. Where the public is alert it chooses wise and able citizens for the board of education. Such persons bring to the board's deliberations a wholesome, unselfish, community point of view. The ultimate result is good schools.

No one appreciates a good board of education more than the superintendent of schools. Upon its members falls responsibility for making many decisions and the formulation of major plans. A board that lacks vision and courage endangers a community with the harmful effects of indecision, indifference, and inconsistency. A board ignorant of its proper functions precipitates countless impediments and dissensions. The superintendent of schools is the executive officer of the school board. It is his board of directors. He depends upon the board for policies, counsel, and support. His task is easier when members of boards realize that they are trustees of the educational opportunities of children and youth.

In spite of the progress made in recent years, too frequently today boards of education are influenced by partisan politics. Some appointed boards are the products of the spoils system. When elected a board often represents the interests of wards or other narrow groups. These and similar practices must be eliminated. The board as finally chosen should speak for all of the citizens of the community—unhampered by the influence of class and political restrictions.

Perhaps the most difficult problem facing the individual board member is that of understanding his task. If he is especially interested in schools, his energy and enthusiasm may lead him to trespass upon the duties of the school administrator. If the board is organized into many committees—a practice now fortunately on the wane—he may attempt to exercise authority which is not rightfully his. By observation and reflection, however, most board members soon appreciate the difference between the legislative functions of the board and the executive duties of the superintendent of schools.

A second major lesson to be learned is how to operate with the other board members as a team. Outside of the board meeting the individual board member is a private citizen who cannot properly make any official statement for the board. Nor should he make any promises with respect to his own future decisions in the board meeting. He realizes that the purposes of the meetings of the school board are deliberation and group decision.

The present yearbook is offered to members of boards of education as a handbook. It outlines many of the functions of boards and suggests procedures based upon long years of professional experience. The handbook does not presume to indicate what should be done on many of the specific problems that will arise in local communities. It does provide a number of principles and examples which, when combined with good judgment, will serve to guide board members thru complex local problems.

The Yearbook Commission was appointed in 1944 by President Worth McClure. In making appointments President McClure included both members of boards of education and school executives. Thru several meetings and in spite of wartime handicaps, the Commission formulated and reviewed manuscripts. The present report represents the point of view of the Commission as a whole.

In preparing the yearbook the members of the Commission called upon the experience and professional writings of many individuals. To these the Commission acknowledges its debt. Thanks also are due to 3068 city and county superintendents who supplied detailed information on their boards of education. Many statements in this yearbook, altho not so indicated by footnotes, are based on these detailed tabulations. At other points specific reference is made to the study. The final report of this special study will appear as an NEA *Research Bulletin* during the early months of 1946.

The Commission also acknowledges the help of board members and members of school staffs for valuable assistance. Special acknowledgment is made to the staff in the Washington offices. S. D. Shankland, executive secretary of the American Association of School Administrators, handled the business affairs of the Commission and helpfully advised in all deliberations. Coordination of the Commission's work was provided by Assistant Director Ivan A. Booker and Director Frank W. Hubbard of the NEA Research Division, with the able assistance of Beryl Evans. Proofreading assistance was provided by the NEA Division of Publications under the supervision of Eleanore Galant.

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FAITH in the local administration of schools is a part of the democratic tradition. It is important that all the people should feel responsible for their government. In no area is it more necessary than in the provision of public education that the thinking, desires, and ambitions of the people be made effective. It is true that the control of educational policy is exercised by persons elected to boards of education. Nevertheless, through the exercise of the franchise, the people are in the long run enabled to determine educational policy, whether it be with respect to the support of schools, their organization, or even the program developed by the professional staff.—*The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy,* Educational Policies Commission, 1938.

CHAPTER I

Trusteeship in Public Education

NEARLY FOUR HUNDRED THOUSAND men and women make up the school boards [1] of this country. Their work, unaccompanied by the fanfare that attends so many American enterprises is too often taken for granted, too often unrecognized for what it is, a major stabilizing power of American democracy.

The school board member helps to direct one of our largest national projects; one that involves the management of valuable property, the annual expenditure of large sums of money, the employment of a million teachers and tens of thousands of other employees. Few industries represent a larger capital investment or give employment to more people than do the nation's schools. But far more important is the fact that this great public enterprise serves directly about thirty million boys and girls and touches the lives of millions of men and women. No industry is concerned with a product so vital.

In each community, too, the school system is one of the relatively large business enterprises, with its plant, employees, and a program that affects nearly every home. Working with the most priceless of all raw materials, the school produces the fabric of responsible citizenship in a free society. Its efficiency is reflected not so much from the size of its output as from the ability, energy, and vision of the people. Nationally and locally, the work of the school board member is of first importance.

School Control in the American Way

American education began near the people—in log cabins, in covered wagons along the trail, among the cottages of seafaring men, and in sod shanties. Schools soon began to appear wherever there was a book, a query, a wise parent, and an eager young mind. And so an American tradition came to be: free schools for a free people. The earliest schools were planned and managed by the whole community, all the citizens having a voice in what was done. When such direct control became impractical, tempo-

[1] In this publication the terms "board of education" and "school board" are used to designate any board, committee, or commission that is charged with the responsibility of conducting and controlling a local system of public schools.

rary committees often were appointed, each to do some important job—such as to build a schoolhouse or to select and employ a teacher. Then, as the amount of school business increased, temporary committees were replaced by permanent school committees or school boards, thus establishing an institution close to the daily lives of the American people.

In other countries public education has been administered, for the most part, from national or provincial centers. In contrast, local control of the schools thru boards of education has kept American schools responsive to immediate popular will and, by the same token, has kept them close to the hearts of the people. This plan of local autonomy has proved exceedingly effective, giving this democracy a system of education unmatched in any other major country at any time. Local responsibility for the financial support of education, traditionally associated with local autonomy, has been a serious weakness of our system of school management. Gradually, however, state and federal governments are learning how to equalize the financial burden of school support without destroying the local initiative and local control which have been the genius of the American plan. To be sure, not all boards of education have been equally prompt in adopting progressive school policies. But, always, there have been leaders to set the pace and, by their example, stimulate other boards to more liberal decisions and actions.

Broad Vision for Important Tasks

Early school boards were compelled to exercise rather complete control over the schools. There were no trained superintendents, principals, or supervisors, and few trained classroom teachers. Of necessity, the school committee selected the teacher, gave him his license, and supervised his work in great detail. The school committee visited classes, heard the children read and spell, questioned them about their work, and examined the writing and ciphering books. If they were not pleased with the school, they told the teacher how to discipline his pupils and, perhaps, how to conduct his classes. The following rule, taken from an early record, shows how far these boards would sometimes go in regulating school affairs: "Every class or scholar must be placed

upon the floor by or near the teachers, that they may have the better opportunity to hear them read or spell with distinctness."

The minutes of another early school board, in a Midwest town more than ninety years ago, state that an applicant for a teaching position, having been examined by the members of the board, was rejected because "he didn't know why he inverted the divisor and multiplied in the division of vulgar fractions." Other significant items from the minutes of the same board specify that a school principal shall be able to teach seventeen different subjects—including chemistry, philosophy, and astronomy; that a copy of *Webster's Dictionary* would be purchased for use in the district; that the board members would essay to draft a course of study for the entire school system during the next two or three weeks; and that the board would meet again the following Monday at 7:30 a. m.!

Such direct management of a school system is no longer the necessary or proper function of a board of education. The school committee which actually "ran the school" belonged to the era of the pioneer town, the covered wagon, the clearing of timberlands, and the breaking of the sod. Its members were chosen at the little red schoolhouse which became, on occasion, the scene of deliberations and not infrequently of battles which rocked the entire community. The modern board of education—or modern school board—still is responsible for the maintenance of good schools. But it is concerned, also, with a modern school program and with the educational matters in the community in a larger way. The modern board is sensitive to the nature and educational significance of such institutions and agencies as the family, church, press, motion pictures, radio, library, playground, museum, and theater and plans its educational policies accordingly. Even its procedures in school management have been adjusted to new and broader purposes.

Because teaching, supervision, and administration have become specialized professions, the modern board of education cannot afford to waste its time and to jeopardize educational results by trying to do the work of technically trained educators. On the contrary, it must devote its energies to the study of needs and possibilities, to the formulation and interpretation of policies and plans, and to the continuous appraisal of results. In ever

increasing numbers boards of education are learning that the only sound procedure for them to follow is to employ a capable superintendent; authorize him to administer the schools, subject to the board's general policies; and hold him responsible for results. Just as the directors of a hospital or a bank do not concern themselves with the technical problems of medicine or banking, competent school board members do not assume the role of school inspectors, supervisors, or purchasing agents. Meager indeed is the service of any school board member today who still considers it his duty to supervise the teachers, boss the janitors, discipline the pupils, and buy the chalk and erasers!

Dealing in Futures

The school board member must look to the future more steadfastly and more clearly than is required of most citizens. Many of the most important results of his decisions and actions will not come to full realization at once. Such planning requires a forward look, an attempt to foresee future trends—not by gazing into a crystal ball but rather thru the careful study of available facts, reflection upon their meaning, and constructive conference with worthy associates followed by courageous action.

Decisions made on many problems today will set the course of education for future years. Often these decisions are based upon principles established by bitter controversies in the distant past. The rancor of the original struggle may be forgotten, but the maintenance and reinforcement of the principles is a continuing school board responsibility. Such matters as the authority of the state to maintain a program of public education, to provide free secondary education from tax revenues, and to enforce compulsory attendance illustrate principles established today in law and court decisions. Ahead of us lie decisions with respect to nursery education, adult education, and other issues. Each board must courageously participate in the discussion and solution of these problems for today and, by so doing, help to establish guides for future school board action.

Among the "futures" with which a board of education deals is the influence of education upon standards of living—the effect of education on the level of American prosperity. This relation-

ship is too often overlooked, one that sometimes is deliberately covered up by those who are concerned with reducing school taxes. School board members must not be deceived in this matter. Not for a single moment must they forget that ignorant peoples are narrowly circumscribed with respect to both the production and consumption of goods. The primitive tribes that inhabited this country before the white men came lived in the midst of the same reservoirs of natural wealth which we enjoy today. Moreover, if any one of America's modern centers of industry were to be surrounded now with primitive peoples and isolated from all other groups, its industry would promptly dwindle. In the first place, there soon would be a shortage of trained workers. There would be a lack of purchasing power among the neighboring peoples; and perhaps most significant of all, there would be no demand for the city's products. This does not mean that every educated person will be prosperous and every unlettered person a ne'er-do-well. But when the citizenry moves to a higher level of education, higher standards of living and greater national prosperity follow as surely as the night follows the day.

Another objective of the American school board at its best is the development of a climate in which democracy will grow and develop. Such a climate results when a board itself operates in a democratic manner and supports those educational philosophies and procedures which foster democracy—when teachers are free to teach and pupils free to learn. Such a climate implies the absence of political entanglements and the jealous guarding of the schools against encroachment by any partisan organization, arm of government, or pressure group that would use the schools to promote its selfish purposes. The consequences of subordinating education to political ends have been amply demonstrated in recent years in all the Axis countries. On far-flung battlefields the youth whose education was regimented to a state-controlled pattern have met and given way to those who were taught to think independently and to live democratically. If this is convincing proof, if we really believe in democracy and in individual worth, the people's schools must ever spring from the life of each community.

A further objective which will be clearly seen as the school board member looks into the future is the goal of worldwide freedom. A deep desire for freedom has characterized American life from

its beginning. It brought the first settlers to this continent, caused and won the War of Independence, inspired the Constitution and Bill of Rights, and has sent American armies into the far corners of the earth to defend the cause of freedom for other peoples. The same desire, which exists at least in latent form in the souls of all people, is showing new signs of energy. Long stifled by force and oppression, this great potential power is beginning to move. Here consciously, there semiconsciously, the deep desire for liberty is reflected in gathering unrest which dictatorships may hinder and temporarily stifle but cannot possibly extinguish. As the world's "Man with the Hoe" thus beckons for a hearing, let it be remembered that no world order can be devised to bring liberty as a permanent blessing to any people without the use of free and universal education. Is it not possible that American education is destined to serve as an example and pattern in achieving that end?

Responsible Stewardship

Any recognized trusteeship in American society is a matter of first importance. Public opinion—often crystallized into safeguarding statutes—simply will not tolerate carelessness in a trusteeship, whether it is concerned with estates, special funds, or institutions. The whole idea of trusteeship is on a high plane—dealing with money and material things but always in relation to persons and human welfare. In most cases the trustee is responsible for the well-being of individuals who, because of immaturity or any other reason, are unable to maintain their own rights. Irrespective of why it is created, there is always social pressure that the trusteeship shall be honorable, sound, and true.

Service on a board of education is a public trust of the highest order—trusteeship at its best. Hope for the extension, improvement, and lasting success of democracy rests heavily upon free public education and, in turn, on the stewardship of the school board member, who is, at the same time, custodian of the rights of every American child.

His is no easy task. Service on a board of education is not for the faint of heart! Seldom will the public take notice of his work. Yet in this seeming quiet there is ever present the brewing storm

which, because of the very infrequency with which it swells to tempest force, calls for extraordinary strength and strategy. Almost without warning, the school board must be ready to meet pressures of innumerable varieties and to protect the schools from their attempted inroads. Disgruntled taxpayers, frustrated individuals, superpatriots, and reformers—among all these, and more, the school board must steer a carefully chosen, courageous course. Veering away from rock and cataract the unwary board may ground itself in the placid shallows of community indifference. Indeed the complacency of the public may sometimes be a greater test of strength than the attacks of reactionaries who sniff the very air for deviations from educational orthodoxy. Faced with the hardest kind of facts, ugly situations, even malicious manipulation, the school board member must work as a realist but emerge as an idealist and a champion of idealism.

Thus Be It Ever

From every rural district, crossroads town, and teeming city, the devoted and courageous men and women who serve on boards of education walk out of the pages of this book into our consciousness. This vast company, nearly four hundred thousand strong, is united by a common hope, by their unshakable faith in human achievement, and by their mutual concern that the doors of opportunity shall stand forever open before every American child. As we explore this living, vibrant cyclorama, we see a thin line of idealists, walking with the stars; a similar row of prosaic materialists, eyes on the ground, concerned only with the next step; while marching between them, with steady footsteps, is a throng of school board members, representative men and women, sweeping the whole group forward slowly but irresistibly to new and higher goals in education.

Trusteeship in education is serious and important business—an all-American institution. It is not cheered by thousands meeting in a stadium on an autumn afternoon. It is not the kind of thing for which bands parade and play, but it is American to the very core. The responsibilities of the office are large; the opportunities for service to childhood and to the nation are unlimited.

Signposts for Service . . .

★ *School boards in America wield great power because the local school district is a unit of state government. The school board is responsible to the people and should not be limited or curbed by being made subservient to other units of government.*

★ *The public school has pioneered in engaging administrative leadership for local government. School districts should be large enough to afford a trained executive (superintendent) and to offer a full educational program.*

★ *Civic-minded groups in each community should concern themselves in selecting candidates for the school board who possess open-mindedness, human understanding, and common sense.*

★ *The most important activities of the school board are policy-making for the schools and evaluation of all proposals and criticisms, and of school progress.*

★ *The school board member as an individual has no official power, since only the action of the board as a whole is recognized by law and accepted practice.*

★ *Membership on the board is an opportunity for public service. School board members should be paid only for actual expenses caused by their work on the board.*

★ *Unity within the board is so essential that the board should have the minimum of permanent committees. Usually a board of five to nine members can operate as a committee of the whole.*

★ *In the best school administration practice the board* legislates *and the superintendent* executes. *The board also appraises the administrative results obtained by the executive. Careful adherence to this division of basic responsibilities is essential.*

CHAPTER II

School Boards in Representative Government

PEOPLE OF OTHER LANDS may be amazed by the powers and authority bestowed in America upon public school boards, but once they study the situation, they quickly come to see the advantages of local control of schools. A commissioner of education from a provincial government in one of the dominions of Great Britain made the following observation:

> I am tremendously impressed by the interest of the people of the United States in their public schools. In our country parents and citizens generally evince little concern about the schools, whether regarding buildings, curriculum, teachers, or school finance. This lack of interest is due to the fact that local people have nothing to do with the selection of teachers, the levying of taxes, the choice of subjectmatter to be taught, or the erection of new buildings. Only when conditions in any of these matters get desperate do the people become aroused to action. Then their efforts take the form of political pressure to be employed at the provincial capital, where all authority in education resides.

In the minds of some Americans the public school has had a small place in the structure of representative government in the United States. To many adults the public school has meant the little red schoolhouse—a one-room, badly lighted, poorly heated, almost unequipped building, but withal an appendage of the state. Memories of the adult mind hold scenes in which mastery of the three R's under a certificated teacher in this school ostensibly prepared youth to read, form opinions, argue, and decide issues of great magnitude and consequence to the welfare of the nation. The school board—selected from farmers, housewives, and storekeepers—hired teachers, spent a few dollars each August on patching the roof of the school building against an expected hard winter, and announced another term.

In many communities the relationship of the public school, its teachers, or the school board to other forms of representative government had to do only with the statement of tax monies for public schools from the county treasurer. Usually no other relation existed between the town government and the school or school board. This was true for various reasons, chiefly because the public school was close to the people and was intimately related

to their daily lives, while the town government was more remote, less friendly, more formal, and often paraded in state to impress people. It was also true that the people had not been educated to consider the public-school system as a part of government. People concerned with the public schools generally looked with suspicion on all who were politically elected to county or town office, and were looked down upon and pitied by these politically successful officials.

The idea that public-school systems are a form of representative government or that the school board members are government officials has occurred to too few people. As a matter of fact, administering public-school education is a governmental function, just as maintaining the peace thru police powers and constructing streets and highways are governmental functions. The school district is a local governmental organization, and school board members are local governmental officials. Their actual functions and duties may be quite different from those of most officials of local government, but any complete examination of local government must include the school district.

The local school district is a unit of state government with broad powers. The local board of education thruout the nation is vested by the state constitution with far-reaching and final authority in practically all important matters concerned with public elementary- and secondary-school education. This authority has been enacted into legislation, and it empowers the local board to erect buildings, to hire teachers, to select courses of study and textbooks, to decide upon the length of school terms, to fix the amounts to be raised by taxes for schools. The grant of general powers by the state constitution makes the board of education a sovereign governmental body in the same class as the board of county commissioners and the city council, subject in actual operation to regulation thru the action of the state legislature.

The fact that the city and school districts may be coterminous does not affect their fundamental organic relationship, which is that they are both functions and branches of the state government. Even when the state allows the city the privilege of being a home rule city, the school district within the city's boundaries is still an offspring of the state government. The state and federal courts have united to affirm this relationship.

Local Government in America

Local government in America, including local school government, is on trial. It is in a rut. With the exception of some municipalities, local government acquired its basic and often too limited pattern in the nineteenth century. Its accusers are the federal government and its departments and bureaus, sometimes the state government, taxpayers associations, and the people requiring local governmental service. Local government has sometimes been accused of failing to meet all local needs except those specified by law and usage. In some cases even functions formerly performed by local government, such as relief to the poor, have been turned over to state and federal governments. Local government has been criticized as being so faulty in structure as to permit graft and encourage inefficiency. The personnel concerned has been accused of being uneducated, untrained, ignorant of governmental needs, and concerned about things partisan but not governmental. Since the public schools are a type of local government, they are subject to some of its criticism.

If local and state governments are to hold their own at a time of federal expansion, trained leadership will have to take the helm. Other than the few who should be elected by popular vote, those who occupy governmental positions in city, county, and state offices should be trained specifically for the jobs they hold.

The city-school district, a unit of local government, stands out as a leader in the adoption of improved features in organization and practice. Possibly the most advanced of such features, almost universally adopted in city, town, and village school districts, is the use of a professionally trained chief executive known as the superintendent of schools. There are, of course, chief executives in most units of government. The chief executive, however, in nearly all cases except that of school districts is not professionally trained, being usually a layman with only desirable personal or political qualifications. There may be, it is true, many professionally trained administrative subordinates working under such a chief executive, as there are also working under a city-school superintendent. But the use of a *head* executive, who is professionally trained for the functions of administration, was pioneered in our country among governmental units by city-school districts.

The only chief executive in any other unit of governnment, even yet, that compares as a professional expert with the school superintendent is the city manager now used in a number of cities and a few counties. The use of city managers is on the increase. The first city managers, however, did not appear on the American scene until the early 1900's, three-quarters of a century after the first school superintendents. There are as yet fewer than seven hundred municipalities with city managers, out of more than sixteen thousand incorporated communities, whereas the use of professionally trained school superintendents is universal in cities and towns and almost so even in villages.

Compared to the professions of medicine and law and some others, the school superintendency is young. Yet during the approximate century of its existence it has made notable progress. It began as a sort of executive secretaryship for boards of education, requiring no professional training. Today practically all universities and colleges offer either majors or degrees in school administration. Many larger universities offer advanced degrees in the field. In keeping pace with the rapidly increasing complexity of modern education, the school superintendency has developed into a true profession. No board of education in charge of a public-school system, whether large or small, would or could operate today without a school superintendent. State laws, in fact, regularly provide for such superintendents in municipal school districts and require them to be professionally trained.

Even tho there has been notable progress, there is still much to be done in extending the employment and improving the training of school superintendents. In numerous instances in county and state school administration the people have not yet adopted the plan of having a board of education represent them in formulating policies and a superintendent employed by the board to manage the educational effort in detail. There is an active trend toward this better type of organization for county and state school administration, and there is hope for its universal adoption eventually. The training of school superintendents also is constantly improving. They are coming to have good backgrounds in education and its philosophy, school law, public finance, building maintenance, principles and practices of administration, and personnel management.

The public school holds out the greatest hope for local autonomy

and government because teachers, principals, and superintendents are trained for their jobs, and in nearly all states have to hold certificates showing preparation to teach before they can be hired by a local school board. The school organization thus furnishes a pattern for the use of trained personnel that can be adopted and followed by all branches of local government.

The School District as a Unique Unit of Government

The American public-school district is a unique governmental unit. It represents, like town and county organization, a type of local autonomous government. With varying degrees of supervision and guidance by a remote state education department, the local school district decides the most momentous of questions having to do with the education of citizens in a democracy. In most other countries, highly civilized or less so, the important matter of public education is under the direct control of a federal, state, or provincial government; school districts are no more than convenient geographical subdivisions, and school boards are local advisory bodies. The appropriation of monies for the support of schools in most other countries is made from the center of national or provincial authority, and education has to compete with all other governmental functions and departments when funds are divided and earmarked. But in the United States school monies are mostly local funds raised and appropriated by the district school boards.

Whether the planning forefathers were simply naive, daring, or possessed of unbounded faith in control by the people, the result is that the local, autonomous school district and school board represent the extreme in local control. The school board in the United States determines the amount of taxes, appropriates money, selects and hires teachers, and adopts courses of study and textbooks. The school district is no more of an autonomous local unit than the town or county government, but the school district differs from other forms of local government in that it functions everywhere, in every community. Except for areas owned by the federal government, the school districts of the nation practically add up to the sum total of land in the United States. School districts are of all sizes and shapes, and contain from one family to the seven millions of people in New York City.

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The school district is unique also in that its activities are directed by trained personnel. Few other forms of local government, whether town, city, county, or state, universally require trained personnel. The teacher in nearly every state must hold a certificate to teach, and the certificate usually predicates some training. This principle of requiring certificated employees as teachers is of the greatest importance in saving the school district from government by the lowest common denominator of intelligence in the community, inasmuch as it is possible in towns and counties for the least fit to be voted into office.

Size and Efficiency of School District

The uniqueness of the school district does not mean that the arrangements for public education in America are entirely satisfactory. It does mean that the kind of schools we have depends upon the local community. It means that the character of public education in each community gives one measure of the community's interest in education, inasmuch as communities may be as progressive or as backward as they please, with certain reservations in the form of state requirements. The fact that each district is a law unto itself throws into the limelight the sum total of intelligence and interest in education and civic advancement. Naturally, one outcome of this situation is that certain kinds of districts tend to have good schools and others to have poor schools. In the main, the larger and more heavily populated school districts have the better offerings, simply because greater population means more children to be served, which in turn requires more personnel. More personnel requires an organization with a leader (superintendent) in charge, which in education means someone with more training for leadership than the average teacher receives. So we have found, over the decades since the school districts began to do business, that the one-room, rural-school district cannot offer the high type of educational program that an enlarged administrative unit can.

There is an active trend, in fact, toward enlarging the area units for the administration of rural, village, and other smaller schools. This trend follows general changes in the rural scene. The lone store with post office patronized by those who could reach it on foot or horseback is gone. The open country churches are going.

The debating societies, spelling bees, and "lyceum" activities of the one-room, rural schoolhouses are gone. Modern conveyances moving along improved roads now carry people from outlying districts to fewer trade and recreation centers. The schools are destined to follow a similar course. The same roads and vehicles that make for larger trade centers provide the basis for larger school units. The natural trade centers become preferred locations for bigger and better schools with modern buildings, improved instructional equipment, and more professional administration.

In some parts of the country, because of sparsity of population, regional traditions, or other factors, the county has become the desirable unit for the administration of the schools. No single pattern for consolidating schools or for enlarging administrative units can be advanced as the best for all parts of the nation. The point here is that there is a movement toward enlarging units, enlarging schools, and providing professionally trained executives.

The plan of placing public activities in the hands of a board of citizens, which hires trained personnel to do detailed and technical work, has operated well in this country. Whether or not the local school board was the first such organization, the plan has spread and is in use for the government and control of all sorts of public activities. Whatever weakness there may be in the plan of using the local school board organization as opposed to other forms of governing personnel, such as a city council or a federally appointed administrator, comes from its size or from the type of personnel on the board. Since the local community makes the choice of the personnel, those who serve will represent the community. If the community is interested in public education, the school board will reflect that interest. If the community is uninterested, abuse of power and even misuse of public money may result. The elected local board, over a period of years, will be what the community wants.

By and large, the local control of schools in this country must be labeled as a success. One good measure of the public attitude is in the buildings that house the schools. Compare the schoolhouses in this country with those of other lands or compare them with other governmental buildings in our country, and the conclusion must be reached that the people in most communities have great pride in their schools.

Any further inquiry into the situation will furnish plenty of evidence of the extent to which the American people cherish their public schools. The fact that the American people have added, or allowed to be added, programs in many fields related to the regular classroom work is evidence of the popular confidence in public education. Impressive is a mere listing of the activities of the public schools in recreation, community health programs, library and museum work, welfare, adult education, and all sorts of community affairs, in addition to huge programs of extra-curriculum activities for students.

If our school boards, controlling the thousands of school districts in this country, have not in all cases been successful, the reasons are not difficult to find. As a people, we have had enough experience in the organization and operation of public schools to analyze our difficulties, and we know remedies to correct our major faults. The future outlook for successful and efficient local government, so far as the public schools are concerned, is not in question. On the contrary, the outlook is bright.

City, County, State, and Federal Official Relationships

Urban school districts and city governments commonly have jurisdiction over approximately the same area. In all such communities some cooperative efforts between these two governmental units are made to furnish citizens with efficient administration of certain public services. Their health departments may combine to meet a common problem in the control of contagious diseases. In addition to a recreation program carried on in city-owned parks, the schools may furnish personnel, buildings, and playgrounds for a recreation program. Libraries are most often controlled by the city; but in some places, notably Kansas City, Missouri, the libraries are a part of the public-school system, and in some communities they are jointly operated. Social-welfare programs are carried on by both city and school districts. The activities of the departments of police, fire prevention, and safety, as well as those for collecting and disbursing tax monies, are performed by the city partly for the benefit of the public-school program.

In some cities the city government is organically related to the schools. The mayor or city council may appoint the members

of the school board, or the city authorities may have power to limit the school budget. In other cities the mayor is ex officio a member of the school board. School authorities generally hold that school districts should be free from external control in all matters of school control, including fiscal independence. In practice the variation is wide. According to Counts,[1] in 1927, 83.2 percent of all members of city boards of education were elected at large or by wards, and only 13.8 percent were appointed by mayors or city councils. Some school boards elected by the people are required to submit their budgets to city officials for review and approval. Under these circumstances every effort is made by school authorities to help city officials see the needs of education, which are so different in their essential character from the problems of street, fire, police, and general city administration. A school board seems to understand the peculiar problems of public education. A city council sometimes feels obligated to compare education with city departments. When both city councilmen and school board members are elected by the people, the school officials should not be subservient to the city officials. In spite of the objections mentioned to making school boards work under the domination of city officials, school systems do manage to get along very well in various types of relationships with city and town governments.

Local units other than city government may exercise supervision over school districts. In several states school district revenues must be granted or approved by the county government. The state government, thru a state office of education, generally sets up standards of certification and in some states prescribes courses of study and textbooks. In some states the state office of education sets up standards for school buildings and maintains a staff to visit and supervise the work of the public schools. Elsewhere the relations between school districts and local civil governments are not close; in fact, in some states almost no relations exist. In the century and a half of United States history, no close or important supervisory relation has ever existed between the federal government and the local public schools. Many citizens

[1] Counts, George S. *The Social Composition of Boards of Education*. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 33. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1927. p. 16. The situation is essentially the same today as shown by a more recent study reported later in this chapter under the heading "Methods of Selection."

have a strong aversion to any plan or idea that would place the public schools in part or wholly under the control of the federal government. Local autonomy in the management of the public schools under school boards remains the American plan. This plan is deeply ingrained in the minds of our people, and federal control is so far not desired by the American people.

Representativeness in Board Membership; Nonpartisan Nature of Job

Perhaps there is no such thing as a nonpartisan election, with nonpartisan candidates, but a school election does approach that ideal. Usually there is only one legal requirement for being a candidate for a school board, and that is to be a qualified elector in the district where the election takes place. Similarly, there is only one ethical requirement for a school board member, and that is a sincere and honest desire to serve the school. Motive for candidacy is very important. Democrats, Republicans, Socialists, or Communists, *as such,* are not wanted on school boards in this country. Neither New Dealers, nor labor leaders, nor capitalists, nor Americans First, *as such,* are needed to assume responsibility for public education in the United States. Interestingly enough, motives of candidates for membership on the school board are not too difficult to discover. Often the motive is apparent in the attitudes of the group which supports the candidate, as well as in the manner in which the election campaign is carried on. Generally those who so seek a place on the board have reasons other than the welfare of the schools that prompt them. "The position should seek the person and the person should not seek the position" is a good rule in the election of new school board members. No one has any moral right to subordinate the education of our children and youth to any partisan principle, group interest, or personal ambition. (See Chapter VIII.)

Everything else being equal, the schools will be better served if many points of view in our society are represented on school boards. This will not be true if representatives of local groups get on boards to serve other ends than public education. If any minority group representative seeks election to a school board the better to serve his minority or group, then he is unfit to have

a hand in directing public education. If any man or woman seeks to serve the cause of public education, to that extent he should be considered acceptable. Some social and educational theorists are anxious to see that all groups in our society are represented in the selection of school board members. If this principle were followed, only the articulate groups could be so served. The nonvocal millions would never be represented. The interests of the children can best be served by school board members who have a consuming interest in public education, whoever they may be.

Qualifications of School Board Members

A genuine interest in and devotion to public education should be the first qualification of a school board member. Everything else being equal, the matter of genuine interest should be the guiding ideal to aid in board member selection. But personalities do not come with just one attribute. Even with this one good trait of genuine interest, people can still be lacking in a sense of humor. They can still be lacking in courage and the ability to think independently. They can still be snobs, devoted to fads, loyal to peculiar cults, or unwilling to learn and grow. Some of them cannot take criticism; some are poor losers; and, perhaps worst of all, some of them do not have good judgment.

A really good school board member is a person of more than average ability in many ways. He is broad-minded and open-minded. He is willing to give substantial blocks of time to discharge his responsibilities as a school board member. He is willing to give his devotion to a cause and a program of activities that is directed by someone other than himself, namely, a superintendent of schools. To this superintendent he defers in matters professional. This superintendent he recognizes as the chief executive, the head of the school system. Some people do not have the ability thus to turn over to others the management of a program to which they give their chief devotion. Such people should not be on the public school board.

A good school board member has a sense of humor and a capacity for human understanding. He is not so thin-skinned that he cannot take criticism of either the schools or the board—of himself for that matter. He knows that his interest in the welfare of school

employees is one of the best ways to make sure that the employees are devoted to the children.

The good member relies on objective evidence and makes decisions on this evidence rather than on the basis of feeling, prejudice, or personal interest. He takes responsibility easily, being willing to take a stand in the community for better schools. From this he does not waver, even tho pressure and publicity send wave upon wave of criticism against him.

The good school board member likes people and sees many of them. He has friends; he is affiliated with important community groups. He is a strong influence in the community. He uses this influence to get good salaries and better working conditions for teachers and keeps the schools abreast of community needs. He believes that the future welfare of the community is closely tied up with the success of the school system. His goings and comings in the district make for better understanding of the schools. He makes friends for the schools. He is an artist in making democracy work, because he knows how to interest others in a cause that exists for the purpose of emphasizing the worth of each individual in society. He exercises a leadership that comes as near being unselfish as human beings can attain, for the promotion of public education means the furtherance of all social institutions in a democracy.

In the spring of 1945, inquiry blanks were sent by the Research Division of the National Education Association to superintendents of schools, asking them to supply information on their boards of education. The results of this questionnaire are briefly reported in this chapter; they will be reported in detail early in 1946 in a NEA *Research Bulletin.*

In city (and village)[2] school systems 90 percent of the board members are men; 10 percent, women. Board members are middle-aged folks—the national median is 48.5 years. The median personal income level of all of the board members reported is $3978. The medians of the various groups ranged from $2067 in the small rural boards to $7516 in the cities over 100,000

[2] Data were received from 3068 school districts; 1460 were city or village boards and 1608 were noncity boards (parish, county, township, rural, and union districts). The city and village group included 349 boards in villages below 2500 in population where the superintendents reported that the school system operated as an independent city board. There were 254 town boards (New England type) where the superintendents reported that the school community was predominantly rural rather than city in character; these latter were considered "noncity" boards.

in population. Thirty percent of the board members studied are college graduates; 42 percent graduated from high school; 28 percent did not finish high school. This indicates that school board members come largely from the higher social levels of the community.

How To Discover Good Candidates

A statement of qualifications of school board members may sound like a large order. But, as a matter of fact, neither a genius, nor an orator, nor any kind of glamorous individual is required to fill the bill. If the small proportion of crooks and cranks in our communities is discarded, there still remains the mine run of people who make up our citizenry. Many of the average-type people have the qualities required in greater or less degree, and all the desirable qualities can be acquired and developed. Many a person of ordinary attainments has become all that can be desired in a good school board member.

Actually it is not so difficult to find good material for school board members. A man or woman with genuine civic interest, fair education, good sense, and no freakish ideas can easily acquire the qualifications of a good board member. Whether or not such civic-minded persons become school board candidates depends largely upon whether in a given community there are to be found groups of citizens, organized or unorganized, who cherish the work of public education enough to be concerned about the character of men and women who are chosen for the school board. These groups may be luncheon clubs, labor unions, chambers of commerce, parent-teacher associations, women's clubs, or other civic bodies. Groups temporarily organized for meetings may take in hand the selection of candidates for the school board. The motives of the groups concerned often decide the motives and attitudes of the candidates for school board membership. There is no foolproof method of selecting board candidates, and to find such candidates is the responsibility of no one individual or group. If the interest in schools is alive and real in the community concerned, groups will become active and good candidates will be found.

There is some evidence that a community can take itself in hand and choose school board candidates in a systematic way.

School District 76, Evanston, Illinois, has organized a "School District Caucus" for the "selection and endorsement of qualified persons to serve on the school board of District 76." The following organizations are at present represented in the caucus: American Legion, Boy Scouts of America, Business and Professional Women's Club of Evanston, the five PTA organizations of the district, Council for Democratic Action, Evanston Chamber of Commerce, Evanston Dental Association, Evanston Medical Association, Evanston Real Estate Board, Evanston Women's Club, Daughters of the American Revolution, Girl Scouts, Kiwanis Club, Lions Club, Optimists, Rotary, Young Men's Christian Association, Young Women's Christian Association, and Zonta.

Only organizations which (a) are non-sectarian, (b) have a substantial number of members in Evanston, some of whom live in District 76, and (c) are interested in the welfare and education of children, and in the development and operation of the public school system of District 76, shall be eligible for admission to the caucus.

Organizations which are directly or indirectly affiliated in any way with factional or partisan politics or which have an interest in the furtherance of the political aspirations of any person, group of persons, or party organization shall not be eligible to membership in the caucus.

No organization of school employees shall be eligible to caucus membership.[8]

The experience of District 76 will be watched with the greatest interest by all who are concerned with the important question of how to choose candidates for school boards.

Methods of Selection

Most school board members are selected by popular election. Some are appointed by mayors; others, by state officials. Nearly 85 percent (84.5 percent) of the boards studied by the Research Division of the National Education Association are elected by the people of their communities; 15.5 percent are appointed boards. In villages under 2500 in population and in rural town, township and union districts, 9 in 10 boards are elected. Appointment is most frequently used (2 in 10) in the city systems and in county or parish boards (3 in 10). Candidates at large, elected at special school elections on a purely nonpartisan ticket, are likely to feel independent of pressures and special interests, and to be able

[8] Rules of School District 76 Caucus, Evanston, Illinois. Article I.

to make decisions solely for the welfare of the schools. Members elected by wards are likely to feel responsibility to the wards they represent. When appointments are made by mayors, governors, or judges, the board members so chosen may be independent in their attitude or not, depending upon whether an issue is at stake affecting their appointment.

In 59.3 percent of the cases reported to the NEA Research Division the school board is chosen at a special election; in 38.6 percent the school election is combined with a general election; in 2.1 percent both special and general elections are used. Special elections are most frequently used in cities under 100,000 in population, villages, and small rural districts. Combinations with general elections occur in a majority of the large city, county, and rural town boards. In 86 percent of the cases school elections use the nonpartisan ballot. Very little difference on this point is shown by the reports for either cities of various sizes or urban as compared with rural-school systems.

In the case of elected boards 85.7 percent are elected to represent the school district as a whole; 10.7 percent represent wards and boroughs; 3.6 percent represent both the whole district and subdivisions. The ward or subdistrict plan is most common in county and parish boards (at least 4 in 10); next most common in union high-school districts (2 in 10); next most common in large cities (1 in 10); and least common in villages and small rural districts.

Appointed city school boards are most likely to be chosen by councilmen or aldermen (65.1 percent) or by the mayor (26.1 percent). Only the county and township boards in rural areas show a relatively large amount of appointment and this power is usually exercised by a special appointing board. Other types with power to appoint school board members are judges (or panel of judges), the county board, the state legislature, the governor, the county court, the grand jury, and the county superintendent. On this point state and regional practices produced many of these variations.

In practice, both good and bad results have come from almost every known method of selecting school board members. Whatever the method used, it seems wise to safeguard the board from a quick or sudden turnover in membership by a system of overlapping terms. When a community or an appointing official is prevented in this manner from suddenly changing the whole or

the majority of the board membership, upheavals based on strong feelings or the whims of politically minded appointing officials may be neutralized or at least minimized.

Legal Obligations of the School Board

Government is maintained in this country thru placing legal responsibility on organized institutions set up to support the governmental structure. These institutions are at the base of and constitute the mainstay of government. They are, among others, the courts, the state legislature, the city council, the board of county commissioners, and the local board of education. Their spheres of activity vary widely, but their responsibility and authority are alike in that their decisions are basic in governmental operation. While the city councils, boards of county commissioners, and state legislatures are concerning themselves with streets, highways, parks, and the police, the boards of education are fixing attendance lines within the district, erecting buildings, laying out playgrounds, employing superintendents and teachers, guiding and determining the policies of operating an educational program.

General Powers and Duties of Boards

As has been pointed out previously, boards of education have broad and sweeping powers in the United States. How a lay body can effectively exercise such final and extreme authority in a field that is as technical and as socially important as public education has become the concern of all who have given careful study to governmental problems in this country. The matter has come to be of particular concern to all who are interested in public-school administration. In general, the best answer to the problem has been found by practice to be for the board to confine its time and energies to policy-making and evaluation, to delegate the detailed and technical duties to a trained administrative staff which heads up in a single chief executive (superintendent), and to require frequent and thorogoing reports regarding the management and operation of the schools.

However, to say that a board of education, legally elected by the people to exercise great authority and broad powers, should

YOUTH—*approach the time when they will take their full places as adults. The school and the home are preparing them for this day. Good citizenship tomorrow is based upon good schools today.*

Photograph by
Public Schools of Glendale, California

spend most of its time in policy-making seems an easy and glib way of settling a large problem. What is meant by policy-making in a school system? When are the policies to be made? Who brings them to the attention of the board? Does the newly organized board sit down to interpret and put into practice an educational platform, or does the board make policies as questions and problems arise? Just where do policies stop and rules and regulations for school management begin? Are all legal electors naturally endowed with the ability to form school policies, or do board members have to study school problems and experience a course of education in school management and control thru policy-making? If a school board stays away from the schools and confines its information about schools to the reports of the superintendent and complaints from school patrons, taxpayers associations, and other local bodies whose activities impinge on school management, finance, and control, will not the board remain only partly informed and biased regarding all the facts in a given situation? School board members would like answers to these questions! Some general statements at least should be made to open up the problems. (See Chapter III.)

Usually boards of education do not take themselves in hand and sit down to a period of systematic policy-making. When they do, there is generally cause for it in terms of extreme dissatisfaction with earlier management of the schools. When serious upheavals occur in a school system the board is likely to find that events require the making of new policies. If the board works alone on the local problems, and especially when a new slate of directors has been selected to clean house, the schools are likely to suffer from hasty and ill-conceived policies and regulations.

When the public has confidence in the board and its school administration, and teachers are content and hopeful in their work, schools are said to be running smoothly. This does not always mean that all is well with the education of the children, because all concerned may be lethargic and asleep to the real needs of the situation. On the other hand, a smoothly running school system is necessary for a wholesome and effective school program. Education of boys and girls does not go on well in times of emotional stress in the circles of school management, supervision, and finance. Policy-making can best be carried on when board members approach

their problems with calm and with open minds. Since good decisions are not made in a vacuum, policies grow out of earlier practice and experience. The proposal for making a policy is most likely to come in the form of a recommendation of the superintendent, who has given some attention to the problems involved in consultation with a part or all of the school staff. This is to be expected, since the school staff is working full time on problems.

On the other hand, a school policy may arise from a proposal from the community, or some group in the community, and may be sponsored by a member of the board of education. The abler the board member and the better enlightened he is on the larger phases of public education, the more likely is the policy to be worthy and beneficial for the schools. There is a clear distinction to be drawn between a board member's broad understanding of the significance of public education, together with a knowledge of how good administration is carried on, and the constant meddling and interference with the details of school management that one sees in the activities of some school board members. To assist board members in performing their duties, some boards have made attempts not only to define their functions but to specify what they shall and shall not do in their relation to the work of the schools. The ablest and most helpful school board members are those who themselves are able to conceive of the place of public education in a democracy; who already know or have learned the place of the regular school employee, including both the teacher and the administrator; who see where the layman can best aid the schools; and who leave detailed and technical school management and all instructional matters to the superintendent and his staff.

Not only do administrators and the supervisory corps have to concern themselves about the proper appraisal and evaluation of schoolwork but the school board has a serious responsibility in this respect. The superintendent, the principals, and even the teachers should use the latest and most approved technics for measuring the results of instruction. They should make careful observations, give tests, and develop rating sheets.

But the board has to use more general methods for its evaluation of schoolwork. Board members must sense the feeling of the community and the attitude of the pupils and of the teaching

staff and must appraise the criticisms that drift to them from angry parents, disappointed businessmen, and long-tongued gossips. Board members must know how to detect the motives of the selfish and the envious; they must be able to analyze emotional outbursts of disappointed citizens, parents, and teachers; and they must above all be able and willing to distinguish the earnest efforts of those who would improve public education from the malignant efforts of those who would destroy public education. Such ability requires a sense of proportion, a sure feeling for justice, and a calmness that overcomes excitability. Many board members have the qualities required for fair evaluation; and the experience of a few years on a school board gives them plenty of practice in developing a truly judicial point of view.

Relation of the Board Member to the Board as a Unit

The law in some states defines the duties of board members and attempts to help the school board member by giving authority only to the board as a whole. Minor exceptions are sometimes made in the law in the case of the president, secretary, and treasurer of the board who are given responsibility in the performance of certain legal duties. But in no case are these officers empowered in their official or any other individual capacity to control or supervise instruction, to make decisions, or to exercise discretionary powers. The individual member stands for the schools in the community. (See Chapter VIII.) To him come patrons with their school problems. If he is impulsive, he may attempt to right wrongs by himself. But when he becomes used to public service, he will always reserve judgment until all the facts are in, and in no case will he attempt to take in hand the management of the schools in order to redress a wrong or to satisfy a school patron. In fact and before the law, the school board member by himself has no power or right to act for the schools. As a member of a board assembled in a legally called meeting he has far-reaching authority and power. But since giving satisfaction to a patron is a detail of school management and not often of policy-making concern, the board member hearing the complaint will not often refer to the complaint of a patron in a legally called board meeting. He may handle the matter thru a conference with the super-

intendent or properly delegated staff member, or he may discuss the question with his colleagues in informal conference with the superintendent present.

A great many school boards have in recent years prepared and published manuals of procedure and rules and regulations. Since these manuals are much alike, one may conclude that consensus has been reached at least on certain best procedures for board organization and action.

Meetings of School Boards

Eighty-nine percent of the school boards reported in the NEA Research Division study have a regular place for their meetings; 11 percent have no regular place for meetings. Small rural boards apparently are least likely to have a meeting room (40 percent have not). Only rarely does a city school board report no place of meeting.

On the average, boards of education have eleven regular meetings each year. The range is from 6.2 meetings in small rural districts to twenty-one meetings in the largest cities. Apparently about one regular meeting is held each month in most districts.

Eighty-two percent of the regular meetings are held in the evenings; 10 percent, in the afternoons; 6 percent, in the mornings; and the remainder, during the middle of the day. Rural districts, small towns, villages, and union districts nearly always meet in the evening (9 in 10). City systems also favor the evening (8 in 10), except the largest systems where about 4 in 10 meet in the afternoons. County boards divide into about equal thirds—morning, afternoon, and evening.

Regular board meetings average about 2.5 hours. In small rural-school districts, township boards, and county boards the median is three hours. City boards consistently average about 2.5 hours regardless of the population size of the district.

Sixty-five percent of the boards report that all meetings are open to the public; 14 percent report all meetings closed; and 21 percent have both open and closed meetings. A majority of those reporting "closed meeting only" are small rural districts and small towns. The larger the city, the less likely that a "no public allowed" policy will exist. Where boards hold both public and closed meetings about 64 percent are entirely open, 26 percent closed, and 10 percent partly open and partly closed.

About 82 percent of the school boards hold "special" meetings. On the average there are 3.4 of these meetings per year. Small rural districts average about one such meeting per year; in large cities over 100,000 in population there is an average of 6.6 special meetings.

Eighty-five percent of the school boards report that the superintendent of schools is present at all regular and special board meetings. This practice is followed almost without exception in large cities and in the case of county boards of education. Only in the small rural-school situation does the superintendent (or executive officer) fail to attend all board meetings.

Significant Trends in School Board Organization

The board, as provided by school law, should elect a president, a vicepresident, a secretary, and a treasurer. Nearly 48 percent (47.6 percent) of the boards elect one of their own members as secretary. This practice is particularly common in small rural-school districts (8 in 10), a little less frequent in villages under 2500 population and in towns (7 in 10). County boards usually (8 in 10) make the superintendent of schools the secretary. A majority of city boards, particularly those over 30,000 in population, choose a secretary other than the superintendent or one of their own board members. In city-school systems a full-time secretary who is not a member of the board is generally employed. He may also be designated as treasurer in some states, but in others the treasurer must be a different person from the secretary since one of his most important functions is to keep records that will act as a check on the secretary's books. It is probably a wise custom to employ as both secretary and treasurer persons who are not members of the board of education. The classification of accounts as established by the U. S. Office of Education, as well as the best judgment of local competent accountants, should be used in setting up a system of books that will fully protect both the moral and the financial responsibility of the members of the board of education so far as legally possible.

When the board is properly organized and ready to function, its method of procedure should be worked out in detail. Naturally, an order of business is authorized and adopted. The matter of open and closed sessions is decided upon. The relation of the

superintendent to the board is determined. If the superintendent is to have full charge of directing the work of the schools and is to be responsible for all the details of school administration, then he must have an intimate and important relation to the board of education. In fact, it is now agreed among all authorities on school administration that the superintendent should be the chief executive officer of the board, and this practice is carried out in the best public-school systems.

Use of Standing Committees

The board should have one standing committee, the committee of the whole. A great deal of evidence has been chalked up in this country against the usefulness of small standing committees. The conclusions reached on the usefulness of such committees are all but unanimous, namely, that the board impairs its efficiency when it divides its members into committees; and the committee plan certainly makes difficult, if not sometimes impossible, the effective functioning of the superintendent of schools. When the board divides itself into standing committees, it is in effect creating small boards of education for special purposes. Such committees are not generally empowered to act, but the very number of standing committees that boards so organized often have makes full reports from each committee impossible. The result is that (a) individual board members are interested chiefly in the work of the committees to which they belong, and (b) they bow and accede to the superior knowledge of the committee that is reporting. The best results are reached when trained, full-time school administrators investigate problems and make recommendations to the entire board. Then all board members may have all the information they desire, since (a) trained full-time employees can gather more information than men and women who are untrained in school administration and who have other things to do, and (b) board members will not hesitate to speak frankly to their employees, whereas they might not wish to ask questions that would seem to slight their fellow board members.

Approximately three-fourths (71.4 percent) of present boards are organized without standing committees. The use of standing committees appears to be most characteristic of cities. Small rural

boards, county boards, and union-school district boards rarely use the standing committee plan (less than 2 in 10). In cities about half of the boards have standing committees and about half do not.

Thirty percent of the boards report that they use special committees. During a twelve-month period they average about one special committee in rural communities and from one to three special committees in cities depending upon the size of the city. Large cities apparently have more standing committees and more special committees.

Size of Boards

The size of the board of education has much to do with its effective operation. A large board of twenty or more cannot easily meet as a committee of the whole to discuss problems fully and frankly. A city school board of from five to nine members seems to work well. Such a number is large enough to represent any district and is not too large so that it is difficult for the members to meet as a committee of the whole for the transaction of important school business.

A school board should be of such size that (a) no one school election would change the majority of its members; (b) frequent meetings could be called without involving too many people; (c) there would be enough members to represent the different important points of view in the community; and (d) there would be enough members so that close friends could not dictate action.

The most faulty setup for a school board is the three-member arrangement, which is so often found in rural and small-town districts. No neighborhood is so small that it does not have two factions. It is often the case in small districts that one board member represents one faction, a second member represents the other faction, while the third member is first on one side and then on the other. This is not because the individual third member vacillates from one side to the other, but the result is the same as if he did. What generally happens is that the three board members are elected for three years, one at a time, so that there is a school election each year. One year, faction number one is successful. Probably next year, faction number two wins at the polls. So two members get together and run the schools, eliminating the third from participation. Next year the minority member

may be joined by a new friendly member, reversing the two-to-one majority. This brings the first faction again into control. Every change in the control of the board is likely to mean a complete or almost a complete change in the school's personnel, and this is likely to happen every year. Whether the three-member board is created deliberately or by chance, the result is the same. It provides an ideal arrangement for playing politics on a small scale. In an evenly divided community this school board arrangement makes a community setup in which each side can hope to win. The welfare of the children is forgotten. Every complete turnover in teachers and superintendent means a new educational program. The loss is not only from lack of continuity but chiefly from the fact that in a year's time a new corps of teachers cannot work out any connected or coherent plans of education. So a continuous change in program means a poor school program always.

Small towns and consolidated school districts often have three-member boards. The number on these boards should be raised to five, even tho legislation may be required in order to do so. For one-room rural schools the answer should be consolidation, which may or may not mean the elimination of one-room schools. In these days of motorized travel there is no longer left any excuse for having a separate school board for every country school. One school board of from five to nine members for a fairly large community unit constitutes the best plan for rural-school administration. Any form of community unit that is natural and fairly homogeneous is suitable for a school district. In New England the town is the desirable unit. In the Middle West it may be the township or county. In the West it may be an open-country consolidation, or the unit may be an area comprising a valley or other natural community unit. The one-room school buildings themselves may or may not be closed in favor of larger schools, depending upon problems of travel. As much as we may favor local control for public schools, there can be no good reason advanced for the continued existence of a school board for the one-room rural school. Such boards, working as they must without competent, trained executives, cannot administer a modern school program. The faster the various states move in effecting larger units of school administration, the sooner will people respect

the idea that local school control is a plan of governmental operation that is worthy of being maintained in efficient form.

The meeting of the committee of the whole as needed in conference with the superintendent of schools constitutes a sensible and satisfactory way of transacting the business of the schools. A conference meeting of this kind can be confidential if the regular board meetings are open to the public. If all members are present, there is no temptation for the board to divide itself into cliques where a few plan and decide matters that the whole board should decide. It should be considered unethical for two or more board members to reach conclusions before the whole board and the superintendent have had an opportunity to participate in the discussion and the decision. Likewise, it should be considered unethical for the superintendent, without the knowledge of other members, to take individuals or a group of a few of the members of the board aside to discuss and decide matters before the whole board has had a chance to participate in making the decision. Perhaps this principle of operation of a board is the most far-reaching and important of all, and it does constitute the chief reason for only one standing committee—the committee of the whole.

Length of Term and Tenure

A majority of all school boards (57 percent) reporting to the NEA Research Division are chosen for three-year terms. This length of term is particularly characteristic in cities under 30,000 population and in rural areas in township, town, and union districts. In the largest cities there is a decided preference for four-year and six-year terms.

In nearly 70 percent (69.9 percent) of the communities reporting, one or more school board members are chosen each year. Twenty-seven percent make one or more changes in board membership every two years. Frequency of change is most characteristic of the small rural-school districts and union districts. A majority of city boards, particularly those in cities over 100,000 in population, and county boards report changes every two years.

In only 15 percent (14.4 percent) of the boards is there a possibility that any one change in membership will affect the majority of the board. Apparently this possibility is greater in the largest cities and county boards—where terms are longer and changes

less frequent—than it is in smaller places where a small minority of the board is elected each year.

A majority of present board members have served from two to nine years; the median years of service is 6.7 years. The median length of service ranges from 5.2 years on small rural boards to 8.5 years in villages less than 2500 in population. A little over 6 percent of present board members have served twenty or more years.

Compensation

Should school board members be paid for their services? Should citizens be asked to assume, without monetary compensation, the heavy moral and legal responsibility of management of a school system? Especially, should they be asked to take this responsibility in a large city where the school system may approach, in number of employees, number of buildings, and amount of money expended, the largest manufacturing and commercial concerns in the community? The answer to this first question is almost universally: No, school board members should not be paid any money above that required for their actual expenses in connection with their schoolwork. The payment of salaries for work on a school board has been tried, often with disastrous results. What are these results? Nobody has ever suggested that school board members should be paid salaries high enough to attract, because of the salaries, the ablest men and women in the community. When salaries are paid, they are small, almost nominal. It is true that salaries, large or small, do attract men and women, and that just as high salaries may attract the able as well as the incapable, small salaries are more likely to attract the less capable.

The first evil result, then, of paying salaries to school board members is that school board membership is placed on the patronage list, and far down on the list at that, because the salaries are small. But inasmuch as salaries are paid for a term of years, those citizens who are willing to work at the salaries offered are likewise willing to spend money and time and to make definite political moves to secure their own election. Therefore, salaries for school board members actually put a school board election or appointment on a patronage or political basis. The most important evil result of paying school board members salaries is that they will try to

save the salaries. There is no way in which a board member can feel he is earning a salary except to attempt to do the detailed work that the board pays the trained superintendent and his staff to do. The lay citizen who tries to earn his salary as a school board member makes difficulties in the management and operation of the schools. He does not work under the direction of the superintendent because he is a member of the board that hires the superintendent. The result is a conflict in authority and plans for the administration of the schools.

Seventy-four percent of the school boards reporting to the NEA Research Division do not provide compensation for their members. Apparently the compensation arrangement is most characteristic of county and parish boards (9 in 10). It is also widely used in towns (8 in 10). In city districts less than 10 percent compensate board members for their services.

Certainly it is true that being on a school board takes time, energy, intelligence, and the ability to deal with people. The reward for such service is threefold: (a) the satisfaction of having rendered a worthy service to the community and to the nation; (b) the opportunity of helping to decide important questions and to learn *by* enacting policies; and (c) the honor and prestige that come from sharing a responsibility for America's greatest and most important public institution—the public schools.

In summary, the local school districts of the United States are unique as governmental units in a civilized society. School boards carry tremendous responsibility and authority for the education of childhood and youth. When conditions are right, school boards and board members furnish and control situations in which is carried on the best kind of educational program known for a democratic social order. The local school board is of the local community and is sensitive to local demands. At its best it not only represents educational needs as locally recognized but provides highly trained leadership and direction for American public education. Even when all the problems of local tradition and stubbornness in the face of needed changes are recognized, the local school board, as compared with all other American boards and commissions, probably should have the credit for making the most important contribution to social progress.

Signposts for Service . . .

★ *Educational results are best when the board and superintendent freely seek each other's counsel in connection with their respective basic responsibilities and when they exercise teamwork in connection with administrative duties not readily divided.*

★ *A major responsibility of the superintendent is to provide the board with timely and comprehensive reports, including an attractively written annual report, to give the board a knowledge of both the achievements and the needs of the schools as a basis for official decisions.*

★ *Progressive school boards in rural areas, working without employed executives, seek counsel on their crucial problems from county superintendents, state superintendents, colleges of education, school board associations, and nearby superintendents of schools in towns and villages.*

★ *Terms of service for school superintendents tend to lengthen when boards more and more appreciate the value of the knowledge about local people and conditions a superintendent accumulates with continued tenure.*

★ *Longer tenure for superintendents is encouraged by an increasing appreciation of the difficult position the head of a school system holds, as contrasted with most other professional workers, with the whole population as his clientele.*

★ *The trend toward longer tenure for superintendents extends to smaller schools at least partly because of an increased recognition of the extreme relative scarcity of larger systems to which such superintendents were formerly supposed to be able to move by way of promotion.*

★ *The hit-and-miss methods generally used in the past in employing superintendents to fill vacancies are being displaced by methods of active search for and scrutinizing appraisal of candidates, with the help of professionally trained advisers.*

CHAPTER III

School Board and Superintendent of Schools

DETERMINING WHAT FUNCTIONS should be performed by the superintendent and what ones should be retained by the board of education has had to evolve with the growth of school systems and the extension of public education. The near absence, even yet, of professionally trained head executives in other branches of government has had a tendency to retard the clarifying of the proper functions of such an executive in the schools. On the other hand, the precedents in the commercial and industrial world for effective working relationships between trained executives and boards representing stockholders have assisted, by example, the cause of professional administration of the schools. A large and increasing number of school systems of all sizes has adopted the general pattern used in industry and commerce for the working relationships between board and executive. This pattern and its controlling principles are the chief concern of this chapter.

Principles Governing the Division of Administrative Functions

The administrative functions that correspond to those once performed by the board of education and its committees are now performed by the board and the superintendent together. Some of the functions are not readily separable and must be handled jointly, as discussed later. But the primary functions are separable and can and should be divided between the board and the superintendent. These primary functions cannot be the same; they cannot rightly be duplicated nor be in conflict. It is imperative for the sake of efficiency that they be divided on some sound and workable basis.

EFFECTIVENESS, THE CRITERION FOR DIVIDING DUTIES

The criterion for the division of functions is effectiveness. By trial and success in the past experience of many boards working with many superintendents, it has been discovered what kind of powers and functions should be exercised by each. It has been

found that when the board performs one kind of functions and the superintendent another and different kind of functions the schools are more effectively administered. It is not the welfare or convenience of the board or of the superintendent, or the personal right or pleasure of either, that determines the work that each should do; it is the right of the children and youth to have the kind of schools that the best possible administration can provide that determines how the board and the superintendent shall divide their powers and duties.

The board legislates; the superintendent executes—The basic division-of-labor principle, discovered thru the experience of those boards and superintendents working together most effectively in the past, is that *legislative* powers and functions shall belong to the board and *executive* powers and functions to the superintendent. This is a principle that has taken much experience, some of it bitter, to reveal. This principle, even yet, is not always adhered to in practice. Standing committees or special committees of the board often perform what are essentially executive functions. Even individual board members at times assume powers that are essentially executive in nature.

A former member of a board of education in a city in New Jersey says, regarding this matter:

> Once this decision on a policy is made, the administration of the policy that has been agreed upon should be delegated to the superintendent and his associates, who presumably are professionally qualified for such service and the layman should no more interfere with such professional services in education than he should with professional services in other fields.[1]

The place of school business administration—Sometimes, particularly in smaller school systems, the board reserves for itself some of the administrative functions connected with the purchasing of supplies, employing noninstructional workers, and even selecting teachers. These are violations of the principle that the board should perform legislative or policy-making functions and the superintendent should have exclusive responsibility for executive functions. The violation harks back to the time when school

[1] Greene, Richard T. "The Board of Education and the Public." *American School Board Journal* 97: 19; October 1938.

superintendents were not as well trained as most of them are today, especially for performing the business functions connected with school administration.

In larger school systems this distrust of the superintendent's ability to direct or supervise the business activities has led in places to the use of two coordinate executives, one to handle business affairs and the other to handle educational matters. Under this plan the board does not perform the business functions, as is too often done in smaller school systems. Therefore it does not violate the principle that the board should perform only legislative functions. It does something possibly worse, however; it tends to create disunity in the executive work of the school system by providing two executive heads where there should be but one. It not only ignores the fact that modern school superintendents are trained to supervise school business as well as purely educational affairs, but it violates the principle that business, too, when it serves a school system is educational in function.

RESPECTIVE FUNCTIONS OF BOARD AND SUPERINTENDENT ILLUSTRATED

In order better to clarify the distinction between legislative or policy-forming functions and executive functions, properly allotted to board and superintendent respectively, the following classified list of examples is presented. The list does not even approach completeness, but it is deemed long enough and diversified enough to be adequate for purposes of illustration:

I. *General Functions*

Board: Legislates and establishes general policies, such as the scope of the educational offerings to be maintained, from nursery school to junior college; sets length of school year and vacations; decides extent of expenditures to be made for education; decides upon buildings to be provided; uses effort to secure state legislation to meet local needs; employs a professional school executive to administer the schools and evaluates and appraises his services.

Superintendent: Assumes immediate charge of the entire school system, as the board's chief executive officer in large school systems and often as its only executive officer in smaller school systems; coordinates the work of all administrative departments, preferably as a superior officer under whom business and other executives in the system serve; executes the policies of the board or assumes responsibility for seeing that they are executed and recommends policies for the board to consider in improving the system and its educational service to the pupils and the community.

II. *Functions in Connection with Major Phases of the System*

A. Professional and nonprofessional employees

Board: Adopts pay scales; elects or rejects employees on the nomination of the superintendent; determines principles of treatment for employees, such as those in connection with sick-leaves, leaves of absence, preservice and in-service training, retirement, and so on.

Superintendent: Nominates all certificated and noncertificated employees; recommends for discharge any employees rendering unsatisfactory service, within the limits of the law and board regulations; with his staff assigns, directs, and supervises the work of all employees with due respect for any individual rights involved; proposes adequate salary scales for different classes of employees.

B. Curriculum offerings

Board: Decides the general scope of the local educational offerings, in addition to those required by law, and passes upon instructional procedures related to controversial matters, such as those sometimes connected with religion, science, social and governmental organization, and so on, within the limits of the law and the requirement of adequate academic freedom of instructors.

Superintendent: With his staff, purchases approved textbooks and other instructional guides and equipment; schedules classes for the various types of training and assigns space for them; assigns appropriate instructors for the various curriculum offerings; decides the general methods of instruction to be used; provides for the continuous revision of courses of study to meet changing conditions, by appointing teacher and possibly citizen course-of-study committees and directing the work of any curriculum experts the system may employ.

C. Finances

Board: Approves and adopts an annual budget; votes tax levies if fiscally independent or, if not, recommends adequate levies to those who have the final power in the matter; decides upon the size and the time of bond levy proposals to the electors; adopts regulations for the accounting of all school funds; and so on.

Superintendent: Presents his proposed annual budget and interprets it for the board; administers the budget after it is adopted and keeps expenditures within its limits; provides for all possible economies that do not endanger educational results; directs the accounting of all school funds; makes proper financial reports to the board.

D. Plant

Board: Decides what buildings shall be built, when and where, and what equipment shall be purchased for them; decides upon extensions of buildings and any major alterations; selects and purchases school sites for future plant expansion; selects and employs school architects as needed; decides the number of caretakers for the buildings and the general quality of care to be given—all with the counsel of the superintendent.

Superintendent: Directs the planning of all educational features of new buildings or alterations of old buildings and counsels the architects in the general plans for such building erection; assigns caretakers to all buildings and maintains general supervision over their work; provides for needed experimentation in determining economical and otherwise efficient methods for building care and upkeep.

E. Pupils

Board: Determines policies regarding age of school entrance, within the law; authorizes the establishment of special schools or classes or other facilities for pupils who are physically or mentally handicapped; determines the general requirements for graduation from the various units of the system; provides for protection of health by use of school lunches, medical and dental clinics, and school nurses; makes regulations regarding corporal punishment, truancy, and delinquency.

Superintendent: Administers all schools and classes established by board action; directs the instruction, guidance, and discipline of all pupils; directs classification, promotion, and graduation of pupils; directs research to determine resulting effects of instruction upon pupils; promotes organizations, such as pupil or student councils and Junior Red Cross, for training pupils in democratic and socially adjusted living.

F. Public relations

Board: Represents the community's attitude toward the kind of facilities to be provided for education and interprets these to the superintendent; upholds the administration of the schools before individual citizens and citizen groups; intercedes for proper and adequate state legislation and financial support for schools.

Superintendent: Directs a program for reaching the citizens of the community with adequate information about the activities of the schools, the reasons for the activities, and the results obtained; interprets the schools and the policies back of them in addresses before civic groups when called upon and as available time permits; works with parents' organizations and other groups interested especially in school welfare and progress; fits himself, with his family, into the civic, social, and religious life of the community in a constructive way.

Board and Superintendent Advisory and Cooperative Interrelationship

A major premise of this chapter is that the board of education should have exclusive responsibility for legislative or policy-making functions and that the superintendent should have exclusive responsibility for executive functions. Such a division of responsibilities, however, does not prevent the board and the superintendent from seeking advice from each other about the discharge of their respec-

tive responsibilities. Moreover, there are school administration functions that are not readily divided between board and superintendent and need to be performed by the two working together as a team.

BOARD AND SUPERINTENDENT RECIPROCAL ADVISORY RELATIONSHIPS

In all properly organized and operated school systems the board receives professional advice from the superintendent in connection with its legislative functions. The board holds final power on all legislative decisions, but in practice most suggestions for policies to be adopted are likely to come from the superintendent. In turn, the superintendent may receive valuable advice from the board, its committees, or individual members regarding the discharge of his executive duties. In such matters the superintendent should have the power of final decision, but that does not prevent his acceptance of many important suggestions from the board.

The superintendent as adviser to the board—By professional training and experience the superintendent not only is acquainted with executive technics for managing a school system but he is also familiar with the basic policies that should govern a school system. He knows from study, experience, and observation what policies are used in other school systems, particularly in the better ones. He knows the basic principles of educational administration that should regularly underlie school administration policies. He has some of the indispensable kind of information that an architect would have for one about to erect a building. In short, he knows "what's cooking" in school administration.

In connection with a policy a board of education may be considering, a superintendent can answer such questions as: What are the principles of education involved, or how will the policy affect the pupils? How do the people react to such a policy in communities where it is used, or are likely to react, judging from the reception of similar policies, if the policy is a new one? How do teachers customarily react, if teachers are involved, as they usually are? Are there legal complications and, if so, what are they? How will the adoption of the policy affect the budget, if there are financial factors?

Certainly no policy should be adopted by a board of education without having the answers to such questions. Certainly, too, no

board of education should fail to take advantage of the knowledge about such matters that its superintendent of schools possesses because of his professional training.

The superintendent more than a passive adviser—The superintendent of schools is prepared not only to give counsel to the board on policies initiated by the board, or on the revision of policies previously established, but he is trained for proposing policies on his own initiative. In fact, he is bound by the canons of his profession to make such recommendations about policies as seem needed for the good of the schools. In this connection it is said, "The superintendent proposes and the board disposes." The implication is sound that the final decision rests with the board.

If, however, only such policies as the board might initiate were to be adopted, educational progress would be much retarded in many communities. A board member who is a lawyer might in the councils of his own profession propose excellent and progressive policies for the improvement of legal procedures. A board member who is an engineer might do likewise for the engineering profession. But as school board members these representatives of various professions and vocations are laymen. Because of the complicated nature of modern school administration laymen as a rule are limited in time and ability to invent or devise the progressive changes likely to be needed for the schools. At least they cannot be expected to be the source of all the suggestions required.

Many excellent policies develop, however, from suggestions of board members. This origin should be encouraged. To have board members reasonably active in suggesting policies increases the number and variety from which to select and accordingly tends to improve the quality of those adopted. This tends, too, to compensate for the limits to policy-formulating ideas on the part of even the best school superintendent, and it tends to offset the superintendent's "professional" bias or personal equation. The validity and desirability of policies thus originating should be safeguarded, as with other policies, by their having to pass the collective judgment of the board as a whole, tempered by the professional counsel of the superintendent.

But there may be a wealth of service to be rendered even by board members who do not contribute suggestions for policies.

Under the leadership of a capable and alert school superintendent a board will in many, if not most, cases have plenty to do in connection with policy-making in evaluating and acting upon his recommendations. In making as conscientious and as valid decisions as possible regarding the superintendent's policy recommendations, a modern board of education exercises one of its highest functions.

The need for judicious discrimination in handling proposed policies, regardless of the origin of the proposals, is stated by one board member as follows:

> In a sense the board of education is a jury which is to represent the people in considering the various educational issues that are brought before it to the end of making decisions with reference to them that are just to the people. . . . The board has the responsibility of determining which objectives and policies are best suited to the needs of the district.[2]

The welfare and the progressive character of the schools of a community depend greatly upon the soundness of the policies that are adopted to govern them. That soundness depends partly upon the professional wisdom the superintendent demonstrates in making recommendations and in counseling with the board of education. It depends probably even more upon the collective wisdom of the board as it acts upon the proposals, and possibly still more upon the board members' success in freeing themselves from all vestiges of ulterior motive, leaving only the motive of deciding what seems to be best for the children and youth in the schools.

The superintendent's reports to the board—An essential part of the superintendent's advisory and policy-recommending function is making reports to the board about the schools. One of the cardinal duties of the superintendent is to keep the board of education informed on the progress of the schools and on how the policies adopted by the board are working in practice. Some of this information may be mailed to members. Some of it may be given in oral reports at board meetings. Most of it will probably be given in written reports presented at meetings, with or without oral amplification. Often in connection with a recommendation there will be need for a special report giving the supporting data. In the best operated school systems the superintendent reports regularly at meetings.

[2] Greene, Richard T., *op. cit.*, p. 19-20.

In such school systems the superintendent also prepares an annual report to the board, in printed form for larger systems and often in mimeographed form for smaller ones. Such a treatise summarizes the work of the schools for the year and presents other information for the enlightenment of the board and possibly also the community at large, and for permanent record. The best annual reports today differ much from the dry-as-bones statistical tables that characterized too many such reports in the past. Even when modern annual school reports are intended for the board of education rather than for the general public, they contain graphs, pictured illustrations, pithy statements, attractive typography, and other features that give them human-interest appeal. Sometimes there is an official annual report to the board of education, and then from its content, material is selected to make up possibly a shorter report for public distribution, highlighting special school activities or problems. The point to be stressed here is that in what appears to be the best school administration practice there is, in addition to the superintendent's reports to the board during the school year, an annual summary report at the close of the year.

One of the distinguishing characteristics of effective cooperative effort of board and superintendent working together is this use of frequent, well-organized, and well-presented reports of many kinds, including an annual report, made by the superintendent to the board. These reports supply the information necessary as a background for the decisions on policy the board is required continually to make.

The board as adviser to the superintendent—There are from time to time executive actions in connection with which the superintendent may well receive and accept counsel and suggestions from the board or its members. These may include, for illustration, treatment of nonprofessional employees, treatment of professional employees in connection with their personal welfare, the directing of the public relations work of the schools, the handling of business functions, the care and upkeep of school buildings and premises, and even the formulating and directing of the instructional program.

Naturally the board's advisory assistance to the superintendent in connection with his executive functions is likely to be relatively greater in smaller school systems. In a large school system the

superintendent has a staff of several, or even many, experts representing varied fields of experience and training. He can consult these when his own information is inadequate. But the superintendent of a small school system typically has no staff. Yet he has to deal with almost, if not quite, as wide a range of problems as the superintendent of a large system.

The superintendent of a smaller school system may sometimes consult citizens in the community or neighboring schoolmen for advice. But on his own board often he will find valuable consultants, such as doctors, lawyers, engineers, businessmen, and others who, because of their training, experience, or good common sense, are qualified to give counsel on school management problems. Board members are bound to be deeply interested because of their official connection with the schools. In many cases they are useful advisers, particularly for the relatively inexperienced executives often in charge of smaller school systems.

PROFESSIONAL HELP FOR BOARDS WITHOUT EMPLOYED EXECUTIVES

A majority of the boards of education in our country are in charge of the administration of rural schools, typically one board for each school. Leading thinkers in the field of school administration advocate a great reduction in the number of such boards, thru either the combining of both districts and schools or at least the combining of districts. With such a change there would be an opportunity in many cases for the employment of local school executives.

Professional school administration is still in the future for many rural schools, however. Meanwhile boards of education in charge of rural schools need professional counsel from time to time. There is usually an elected or appointed county superintendent of schools. In many cases such superintendents are not professionally trained in school administration, being often former classroom teachers trained as such. Despite this, most of such superintendents are competent people and soon learn much by experience about the handling of rural schools. They have an opportunity to work with many schools and many school boards. They thus acquire a valuable fund of information about current rural-school problems. Their advice should be sought about the more technical aspects of rural school board activities and decisions.

The state superintendent of public instruction and his staff at the state capital also are available for advice by correspondence if not by personal call. Rural school boards should feel free, or even obliged, to call upon the state education office for advice on legal matters, building plans, transportation difficulties, financial questions, and other technical problems. Often the advice of the state education office can be obtained best thru the help of the county superintendent. The nearest teachers college, the departments of education in other colleges, or the state university are also possibilities for technical help for boards of education.

Many states now have active school board associations, with paid secretaries and with informative publications. These associations and their offices are an available source of helpful guidance for all boards of education, rural and urban, in connection with everyday problems.

Not far from almost any rural school is a trained superintendent of schools in a village or town—probably at the nearest trading point. Such school superintendents are themselves in charge of what is, or should be, education adapted to rural life. Many of them have had experience on farms and have taught rural schools. They are usually trained in modern educational administration. They are almost sure to be glad to counsel with a rural school board about its technical problems, and certainly in many cases can give valuable advice.

These various sources of counsel for rural school boards are not adequate; they do not take the place of the on-the-grounds professional administration that all schools should have. But until professional administration for rural schools is forthcoming the school boards in charge should undoubtedly seek the professional counsel that is obtainable instead of going ahead without it, especially in connection with crucial matters.

BOARD AND SUPERINTENDENT COOPERATION AND TEAMWORK

Even the regular duties and responsibilities of the board and the superintendent, which come to be differentiated in practice, require a high degree of cooperation, as has been shown. Many irregular problems also arise in the administration of schools, such as those connected with a building program, major complaints from employees or citizens, exigencies growing out of war or depression, and so on, for which there is often no predetermined

division of responsibility. In connection with such problems cooperation must reach a high level of teamwork. In all official relations between board and superintendent, in fact, cooperation and teamwork are the indispensable keynotes.

Obstacles to, and essentials for, cooperative effort—To have cooperation there must be a will to cooperate. In school administration a factor that too often interferes with the will to cooperate is the presence of factions on the board, even sometimes including the superintendent in one of them.

These factions are connected usually with social or business cleavages in the community and may be unrelated or even antagonistic to school welfare. Influenced by interest in a faction, a board member's judgment is certain to be unreliable. The decisions of the board with all, or even a part, of its members prejudiced by factional bias are bound to be spurious and often pernicious. To be characterized by soundness the collective judgment of board members must be prompted by an absolute singleness of concern for the welfare of the schools. Perhaps it is too much to expect all board members and school superintendents, as human beings, always to escape factional groupings in a community, but at least they should feel compelled to disengage themselves from any such entanglements when counseling together about the administration of the schools. In the vestibule outside the door to the room where the board meets for business the members and the superintendent should hang up their factional interests with their hats and put neither on again until the meeting is over.

Honest differences of opinion between board members or between board and superintendent must be expected occasionally. If the differences cannot be dissolved, they must at least be handled, if at all possible, in such a way as not to destroy the basic loyalties that should exist among those working officially together for the common cause of school welfare. Husband and wife do not always agree, but if the home is to be preserved the disagreements must not be allowed to become fixed or chronic. The marital partners must continue to pull together as a team for the good of the home in spite of their differences, at least until those differences become actually and insurmountably obstructive in character. The same principle applies to the school administration team.

Another requisite to harmony of action between board and superintendent is that both keep their differences as private information as much as possible. In cities where school board meetings are commonly visited by press representatives, the disagreements that arise sometimes get into the papers. But there is a marked difference between information that reaches people in such an impersonal way about disagreements and that which reaches them from private reports. It is not the press accounts of disagreements, as a rule, that cause bad feelings but the careless or pernicious talk that sometimes comes from those who are not loyal to the other members of the school administration team. What is said privately, therefore, should be said by way of disseminating truthful and needed information to worthy citizen inquirers or, upon occasion, in reporting to a responsible school caucus or other public-spirited group of school-concerned citizens, or by way of defending some other member of the team who has been attacked. High "professional" courtesy should be practiced in such matters by both board members and superintendent.

Another factor that sometimes interferes with the best cooperative relationship of board and superintendent is jealousy that may arise about powers, and particularly about credits for school administration achievements, or about discredits for alleged shortcomings in the administration of the schools. The public does not always understand the close collaboration that the board and superintendent must exercise in connection with major administrative projects. The public accordingly sometimes erroneously gives the credit, or the discredit, to one or the other instead of to both.

There is a temptation for a person to accept unearned credit thus unsolicitedly extended, or to "lie low" when another is getting the blame he should either share or wholly assume. But neither course is in keeping with the principles of good sportsmanship, which require the individual player to divert praise and credit from himself to the team. In turn the team should accept the responsibility for defeat or failure or a poor score, as a team, and not permit the discredit to be thrust upon some individual player, even upon one who happened to make a misplay. Good sportmanship practiced in board and superintendent official relationships removes friction and results in more harmonious and therefore more efficient administration.

Board's Responsibility for Appraisal of Executive Results

The board of education cannot, as has been shown, properly dictate to the superintendent regarding his executive powers and functions. The board does, however, have the right and the responsibility for judging the results the superintendent gets as a school executive. This right or duty of the board is inherent in the nature of the school district as a unit of democratic government. The people in a democracy must maintain control over their institutions. The board of education is the agency the people have set up to represent them in their control of the public schools. The school superintendent can decide for himself how good his work is, for his own private satisfaction, but board members decide how well it suits them as representatives of the people. Otherwise the principle of popular control of the schools would be violated.

While the board must judge the satisfactoriness of the work of the superintendent, it cannot rightly be arbitrary in its appraisal. Whim and caprice must not enter into the matter. The final appraisal must rest upon the most careful scrutiny and the best possible judgment the board can collectively muster. Careless or unfair appraisal of the work of school executives by boards of education tends strongly to discourage the best type of men from entering the profession. The inevitable result of such treatment, as a practice, is that schools in general suffer for want of capable executives.

If the final appraisal brings the conclusion that the superintendent must be replaced by another, the matter must be ethically handled. In fact a board does well to go the second mile in its treatment of a superintendent being discharged. No more doubt than strictly necessary should be left in the minds of either near or more distant observers about the fairness of the treatment. Otherwise the schools of the community tend to become blacklisted by the better superintendents, making it more difficult to obtain a new superintendent as good as would otherwise be possible. The better superintendents do not care to get into communities where there is danger of careless or unfair appraisal of their work. For the sake of the quality of superintendents a school system can attract, therefore, the board should be sure that square dealing with its executive is an established local custom, extending to one being displaced as well as to any other.

Criteria for judging the superintendent and his work—The following criteria for judging a superintendent of schools and his official work have grown out of the thinking and experience of boards of education in their dealing with such executives and out of the thinking of professional students of school administration:

1. Repute as a man and as a public worker, among the intelligent leaders of the community.
2. Aggressiveness and skill in promoting a workable program for the welfare and continuous advancement of the schools.
3. Personal courage, exercised with appropriate tact, in facing opposition to the schools or the program of progress for them.
4. Avoidance of fanfare and self-publicity in public relations.
5. Knowledge and appreciation of the value of a public dollar and ability to propose school budgets accordingly.
6. Skill and application in searching for and obtaining high-grade teachers, supervisors, and staff members as needed, and in assigning them and others work well adapted to their special capacities.
7. Ability to deal democratically and effectively with both certificated and noncertificated employees of the schools, that is, in a way to maintain their respect and at the same time to stimulate them to consecrated effort.
8. Genuine interest in, and understanding and appreciation of, children and youth and their growth problems.
9. Promptness and skill in keeping the board of education and the public well informed about what is going on in the schools, thru adequate oral and written reports to the board and to the people, effective relations with the press, well-planned and well-managed school activity demonstrations and exhibits.
10. Propensity for keeping his feet on the ground, holding due respect for procedures that have precedent, yet giving way in due time for new and better ones.
11. Success, together with his wife and family, in fitting into the social, civic, and religious life of the community in a constructive way.
12. Capacity for maintaining the respect of educational leaders in neighboring communities, and with the leaders in the schools of the region, state, or nation, to the extent that the local school system is large or otherwise naturally prominent.

There are criteria, too, that are sometimes used in appraising a superintendent that should not be used, such as:

1. Criticism from one or a few clamoring people who may be prejudiced or lacking in judgment.
2. Criticism that may be premature, growing out of the introduction of policies or practices for which more time is needed before final judgment should be passed.

3. The enmity of individuals or groups that may have selfish motives for being opposed to public education or its cost.

4. The criticism of teachers or other school workers who may oppose being disturbed from their traditional composure and be too prone to resist changes needed for advancement.

5. Clamor for change in superintendents for the sake of change or for excitement, such as too often occurs in smaller school systems and even sometimes in larger ones.

6. False belief that there are perfect or near-perfect school superintendents to be had, that is, failure to realize that all superintendents are human and therefore fallible and that ideal ones are as hard to locate as the will-o'-the-wisp.

THE SCHOOL-BOARD MEMBER'S CREED: In Working with the Superintendent of Schools and His Staff

I will hold the superintendent of schools responsible for the administration of the schools.

I will give the superintendent of schools authority commensurate with his responsibility.

I will expect the schools to be administered by the best trained technical and professional people it is possible to procure.

I will elect employees only on the recommendation of the superintendent.

I will participate in board legislation only after considering the recommendation of the superintendent and only after he has furnished complete information supporting his recommendation.[a]

I will expect the superintendent of schools to keep the board of education adequately informed at all times through both oral and written reports.

I will expect to spend more time in board meetings on educational programs and procedures than on business detail.

I will give the superintendent of schools friendly counsel and advice.

I will refer all complaints to the proper administrative officer or insist that they be presented in writing to the board as a whole.

I will present any personal criticisms of employees to the superintendent.

I will provide adequate safeguards around the superintendent and other personnel so they may perform their proper functions on a professional basis.

Reprint of one section of a creed prepared by the Epsilon Field Chapter of Phi Delta Kappa, Los Angeles, California, and printed in the Seventeenth Yearbook (1939) of the American Association of School Administrators.

[a] This 1946 yearbook does not interpret this principle to mean a stifling of initiative on the part of board members or making them only "rubber stamps" for the ideas of the superintendent.

Principles and Practices in Superintendent Employment

Probably the most important responsibility resting upon a modern board of education is that of keeping a competent superintendent in charge of the community's schools. As public education has become more and more complex, its technical management has become more and more difficult. Because of the great skill required for the technical management of modern schools, the importance of employing and retaining a capable superintendent to handle such management has become paramount.

Most of the time the job for the board of education is one of retaining a competent executive in the position as long as possible. But from time to time a vacancy occurs and then there is the job of search for, and employment of, a new executive. The principles that should govern a board of education's actions either in obtaining or retaining a competent school superintendent are not too well defined as yet, but even the principles that are established are too often ignored by boards confronted with this vital problem. The emphasis or reemphasis of such principles as have been developed seems, therefore, to be in order.

RETAINING A SUPERINTENDENT WHO IS SATISFACTORY

The tenure of the superintendent is usually a matter of mutual agreement between the board and the executive. Tenure laws for teachers, even where they exist, do not usually protect school executives. The principles that should govern a superintendent's tenure reach far beyond legal considerations and must be based in final analysis upon what is best for the schools.

Longer tenure for a superintendent in the same position is the present trend in both smaller and larger school systems. One reason for this desirable trend is that boards of education are learning that there are no strictly ideal school superintendents. School superintendents today are regularly well trained and will compare favorably in competency with the members of other professions. As in other professions, however, the members who approach being ideal are scarce. The result is that the board that turns off a reasonably good school executive in search of a better one is likely to be disappointed in the new one, too. Consequently more and more boards are learning to retain their superintendents, unless

they really are failures in comparison to those generally available.

Another consideration that leads to longer tenure for superintendents is that a superintendent who leaves a school system, where he has been for some time, takes with him a mass of valuable knowledge about local educational, social, civic, and economic conditions that is a requisite to the most effective handling of the job. A new superintendent from another community, no matter how capable otherwise, cannot possess this local information to start with. A continual turnover of school superintendents disrupts the system and keeps the incumbents busy too much of their time acquiring the basic knowledge of local conditions they must have, leaving too little time for the constructive work that can be done only after such knowledge is acquired.

More boards of education are coming to realize, too, that even a more nearly perfect superintendent cannot please all the people even a part of the time. The unique position of a school superintendent with respect to clientele is becoming better appreciated. Doctors, lawyers, merchants, and other workers who require patronage to live need to please only a portion of the people of the community in order to succeed, for there are usually several of each serving a community. What others besides their own clients think about them matters little so far as their jobs are concerned. But the school superintendent's clientele as a public worker is essentially the whole population. To expect him to please all is setting a standard far higher than that demanded of almost any other profession. Smart boards of education are coming to make allowance for this situation. While a board must require its executive to maintain a high degree of public satisfaction about his work, it must not demand the impossible in the matter.

A good board, in fact, helps to shield its executive from excessive or unfair public criticism. Such a board envisions its and the superintendent's job as more than that of obtaining automatic public approval of administrative acts. Eventually there must be public approval for innovations in the administration of the schools. But much of the approval cannot be expected to come automatically; there must be time to inform and educate the public regarding the new policies. In the meantime the board must defend itself and its executive from too much adverse criticism, rather than yield to public clamor or let the superintendent take the blame.

SCHOOL BOARD—*represents all of the people. Chosen to control a public trust, it has no time or place for selfish or petty purposes. Thru the school system it builds America's future.*

Photograph by
Public Schools of Akron, Ohio

And if blame does come to the superintendent because of the introduction of better things for the schools, the board must protect his tenure until any serious objections can be dissolved in better public understanding.

The tenure situation in smaller schools—Too short tenure for school superintendents, at least in the recent past, has been more frequent in smaller than in larger school systems. For one thing, more moving about is possible in smaller schools because there are so many more of them. There were 16,752 incorporated communities in the United States in 1940. Of these, only 504 had populations of more than 25,000. Assuming a school superintendent for nearly every incorporated community, it is obvious that moving is easier among 16,000 administrative jobs than among 500.

Another cause for transiency among superintendents of smaller schools has been the theory that any good school superintendent should be able to move, and should expect to move, from smaller school systems to larger and larger ones by way of promotion. One of the nationally prominent proponents of this theory was the late Ellwood P. Cubberley, who wrote on the point: "To be able to obtain a small superintendency at thirty, and a large and important position at forty, is about what a young man desiring to prepare for the work should be content to expect." [3]

This assumption has been widely made in spite of census figures that conclusively prove its falsity. It cannot be far wrong, as mentioned, to assume one school superintendent to each incorporated community, for many unincorporated communities employ such executives and they are found in charge of many consolidated schools in the open country. In 1940, 88 percent, or approximately seven out of eight, of the incorporated communities of the United States were 5000 or less in population. Assuming a school executive for each incorporated community, there are nearly nine such executives in place of less than 5000 for every one in places larger than 5000. It is obvious that eight or nine superintendents cannot rightly hope to get one other superintendent's job. If the division is made at a higher population level, the discrepancy is still greater.

Slowly the implications of these figures are being appreciated by boards of education, by school superintendents themselves, and

[3] Cubberley, Ellwood P. *Public School Administration*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1929. p. 223.

by professors of school administration who help train superintendents. Ambitious school executives accordingly are being reconciled to staying in smaller schools and making big jobs out of their management. Boards of education are learning to appreciate the services of these superintendents, for they are better administrators for smaller schools, as a rule, than the "career" executives who use smaller school superintendencies mainly as stepping-stones to city jobs. Boards are learning, too, that it is the relative infrequency of large communities, rather than necessarily the incompetence of an executive in charge of a smaller school, that may keep him from transferring to a larger system even if he should want to. These considerations, plus the great improvement of smaller communities as places in which to live a whole life, are resulting in longer tenure for school superintendents in smaller school systems.

Long-term contracts—One way to encourage longer tenure for a school superintendent is the use of long-term contracts, after possibly an initial probationary period. Such a contract proves the confidence of the board of education in its executive. It gives the executive a longer period of freedom from worry about his job so that he can spend more of his nervous energy on professional work. If the long-term contracts overlap one another by a year or more, it gives the superintendent continued security and freedom for courageous action.

If the laws permit, a continuing contract with the superintendent is probably still better than the long-term contract or even a series of such contracts. Where there is no law to permit a continuing contract one should be enacted. Under such a contract the board and superintendent simply consider the latter employed until one or the other requests a change, with such a request coming long enough in advance to be fair to all concerned.

Nothing in this discussion of the need for longer tenure for school executives applies to undesirable ones. The school board is just as obligated to get rid of a failing school superintendent as to employ and retain, if possible, a successful one. The educational welfare of the children must not be jeopardized by weak executive leadership, retained because of sentiment or lack of courage on the part of the board. There should not be, on the other hand, a

parade of short-term superintendents as the result of the board's futile search for some ideal kind that does not exist. Assuming a satisfactory superintendent, long tenure is a boon to the schools and the community, and should be encouraged by the methods of superintendent employment and retention the board uses.

TERMINATING THE SERVICES OF THE SUPERINTENDENT

A duty which school boards sometimes must perform is that of terminating the service of a superintendent who has not measured up to the standards set by the community or the board. Not infrequently school boards, in the hope that everything may yet work out satisfactorily, permit a superintendent to continue in office, against their better judgment, until the issue becomes acute in the community, to the embarrassment of all concerned. Good school board policy provides for a constant evaluation of the work of the superintendent of schools. If the board is really alert and is working closely with its superintendent, it should become aware of his limitations before they are known by any other group in the community.

When convinced that a change should be made, the board should proceed in a kind, orderly, and professional manner to accomplish the change with the least harm to the superintendent or confusion in the community. The chairman of the board, either alone or in association with one or more other members of the board, should discuss the question freely and frankly with the superintendent, explaining their judgment that a change is needed and the reasons for it and inviting his cooperation. Thus approached, most superintendents will either convince the school board that they are capable of correcting the conditions considered by the board to be undesirable or will resign, effective at a time mutually agreeable, with a minimum of frictional feeling. Such procedure prevents the damage to school and community morale which often comes as a result of a fight between a school board and its superintendent of schools.

EMPLOYING A NEW SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS

Longer average tenure for school superintendents will reduce the frequency of, but not remove, the necessity of hiring a new superintendent from time to time. No task confronted by a board

of education can be more important than that of obtaining a highly competent head executive when a vacancy in that office arises.

One school board member says on this point:

> One of the most important activities that must be performed by any board of education is the selection of a superintendent of schools. It is the superintendent who must furnish the necessary leadership to the board of education so that it may properly carry out its other activities of planning, and appraising the work of the schools.[4]

A president of a large city board says the following:

> The most important and perhaps one of the most difficult duties which confronts any school board is the selection of a school superintendent. The difficulties involved in such a task usually are in direct proportion to the size of the community and the size of the school board concerned.[5]

In recent years many boards of education, faced with the problem of employing a new superintendent of schools, have rejected the hit-and-miss methods too commonly used in the past and have at least tried something different. Not enough of these newer and experimental efforts have been recorded yet to reveal principles and procedures of fully proved reliability. Since the need of helpful suggestions is so great a group of selected cases of recent superintendent employment is presented in outline form by way of illustration and suggestion.

Readers who are not interested in these selected cases are referred to a summary of the recommended principles and procedures that follows on pages 77-79.

The following outlined cases of superintendent selection and employment were chosen to be representative of the newer and better types of procedures that are being used. The cases are taken from school systems of different sizes and from widely separated parts of the nation. The methods used are not necessarily recommended in every instance but are presented as those that have been recently tried in an effort to improve.

Case A—A school board in a city of more than a half million population in one of the North Central states used the following procedure:[6]

[4] Van Westrienen, Harold J. "How to Proceed When a New School Superintendent Is Needed." *Nation's Schools* 11: 29; May 1933.

[5] Meissner, Harry V. "Selecting a School Superintendent." *American School Board Journal* 106: 23; June 1943.

[6] Meissner, Harry V., *op. cit.*, p. 23-25, 54.

1. The president of the board was authorized to appoint a committee of five, out of the fifteen members, to recommend, after search, one or more candidates for the vacancy in the superintendency. The five members with the longest tenure were appointed.

2. The committee met within a month and agreed upon the following procedures: (a) Meetings of the committee to be held in the school administration building. (b) All correspondence to be authorized by the committee as a whole and to be signed by the chairman. (c) All communications regarding the position to be sent to the committee at the administration building. (d) Communications to be filed in special file for the purpose by the secretary of the committee. (e) All board members invited to nominate candidates without implied endorsement. (f) Members of the local school administrative staff invited to apply. (g) Interviews of candidates held only with the committee and with at least three members present. (h) Chairman authorized by the committee to solicit nominees from the executive secretary of the American Association of School Administrators.

3. The proposed procedures were submitted to the board and approved. Subsequent procedures were as follows: (a) Applications were solicited from promising school administrators, and suggestions for candidates were requested from professional organizations and thru the press. (b) Candidates were asked to file professional autobiographies and details about experience and training and supporting credentials. Forty-three applied. (c) Eliminations from the forty-three were by unanimous consent. (d) All board members were invited to sit with the committee during the sifting until the number was down to fifteen. The press was not invited, to protect the eliminated candidates from embarrassing publicity and to avoid pressure from friends of those not yet eliminated. (e) Many meetings were used in the sorting work which was guided by the following and other criteria: Candidate must be young enough to give at least fifteen years' service; must have administrative experience besides that of high-school principal including experience as a superintendent of schools or assistant superintendent, the length and success of such administrative experience to be a major consideration.

4. After six months the number of candidates was reduced to fifteen, and it was decided to hold personal interviews before the committee only, with the fifteen: (a) Interviews were held on two consecutive days, conducted by the chairman; each was one hour in length, informal, and intended to reveal the personality, character, and educational philosophy of the candidate. (b) Eliminations continued to be by unanimous consent and the number was reduced to three. (c) The committee visited the cities of the three to get firsthand information.

5. The committee decided to present only one of the three to the board even tho all were appraised as highly competent. Three or four long meetings were used in making a final decision between the last two candidates, left after the visits to the communities eliminated one of the three. To help in the final decision the committee consulted college educational departments familiar with the candidates. After working from April to December the committee made its final recommendation of one candidate to the board. Complete explanation was made

to the board at the same time regarding the procedures used. The committee's candidate was unanimously elected.

The evidence is that the foregoing procedure resulted in the selection of a superior candidate. This was done, however, in spite of not less than two weaknesses in the methods used. One weakness was that of not submitting the three, or at least the two, final candidates to the board as a whole for its decision. A second weakness was in too little use of professional counsel in connection with, say, the evaluation of the records of the last fifteen candidates instead of with only the last two. See the principles presented at the close of this chapter.

Case B—The board of education in a Western city of more than 300,000 used a screening and advisory committee made up exclusively of prominent educators from within the city and the state. The board made the final choice from several recommended by this committee. The superintendent thus elected stayed but a short time and left under conditions indicating unsatisfactory service. In a subsequent effort [7] to fill the vacancy satisfactorily the board retained the search and screening functions for a committee of its own members and proceeded as follows:

1. After some debate the board decided against promoting a local assistant superintendent, without first combing the entire country for the best.
2. The whole board was made a Committee of Selection and a chairman appointed to do, with the help of a secretary, most of the work. Thirteen colleges and universities from over the country were approached for recommending candidates. The chairman made one trip across the country to consult educational organizations and universities for suggestions about possible candidates of outstanding ability. From time to time the Committee of Selection was assembled to approve what was being done and to make suggestions. Nearly five hundred letters were written during the procedures.
3. Fifty-seven candidates made up the ultimate list. Only part of them had made application. Letters were written to the others to explain the situation and to learn whether they were interested. Two declined.
4. Since almost nothing was known by the committee about any of the candidates those who did know them were requested to rate them, placing each in one of three categories: (a) fully qualified to do an outstanding job; (b) able but not endorsed for the position unqualifiedly; (c) judged to be all right but the rater not intimately enough acquainted to be sure. By the use of these ratings the list of fifty-seven was reduced to fifteen, including two local candidates.

[7] Material on the second or subsequent employment effort only, taken from a report for this yearbook by the chairman of the Committee of Selection.

5. Each of the fifteen was requested to submit a statement of his philosophy of education and how he would apply it in administering the schools if employed. "All kinds of answers" were received, many of them "trite and general." The eight who submitted the best statements were retained as candidates to be seriously considered. These still included the two local candidates.

6. The six out-of-the-city candidates were brought at district expense for interviews. Each was kept in the city for two or three days calling upon board members and other citizens and appearing before the assembly board.

7. Some board members were eager to have two of their associates visit the city and the schools of the candidate about to be chosen before making the final decision. This could not be unanimously agreed upon and was abandoned. One of the candidates from out of the city was finally elected and employed.

It is recommended that the foregoing procedures as well as those in the following cases be checked for validity against the summary of principles and procedures given at the close of the chapter.

Case C—A board of education in a city of 50,000 population in a North Central state used the following method[8] in employing a new superintendent:

1. The president of the board appointed a committee of board members to do the groundwork, with the retiring superintendent as adviser.

2. Applications for the position, fifty-six in all, were obtained by soliciting recommendations from a number of training institutions and by accepting the applications of volunteers.

3. The committee readily reduced the number of candidates to twenty promising ones, who were invited for interviews. Sixteen were interviewed at the place of the vacancy and four at a state school board convention. The interviews reduced the number to five, one of whom withdrew.

4. The board then appointed committees of members to visit the communities and schools in which each of the four was serving, to see his work and consult with those who knew him. Each committee made a written report to the board on its findings. The board as a whole then, after interviewing them, selected one of the four candidates and he was employed.

Case D—A small town in one of the North Central states used the retiring superintendent to help in finding a suitable successor.[9] Procedures were as follows:

1. All applications were filed with the retiring superintendent.

2. No personal interviews with the board of education were permitted except upon appointment.

[8] Taken from a personal letter from the winning candidate, dated September 1944.

[9] Huggett, A. J. "Professional Advice in Selecting a Superintendent." *American School Board Journal* 109: 14, 53; July 1944.

3. College placement bureaus and commercial agencies in the state were asked to recommend strong candidates meeting in general the following standards: (a) an M.A. degree; (b) age between thirty and fifty; (c) married; (d) at least six years of experience, including four in school administration; (e) training in elementary- as well as high-school instruction and supervision.

4. The retiring superintendent interviewed all applicants with whom he was not already acquainted, and kept notes on each interview. Board members approached by applicants referred them to the superintendent. Any who seemed to use methods of circumventing this arrangement were dropped.

5. After all applications were in that could be expected the retiring superintendent met with the board of education and went over the records of the better candidates. Upon a basis of the information given, the board eliminated the candidates down to four.

6. The four were invited to come for interviews. A new candidate was admitted to this special board meeting upon the request of one member, but he was caught misrepresenting and was quickly eliminated. At the special meeting each candidate was allowed fifteen minutes. The retiring superintendent was present but refrained from participation, except to keep the interview moving when it threatened to lag or to bring out an important point that might otherwise have been overlooked. Immediately following the interviews the board discussed the matter and was able to agree upon one of the men and he was employed.

Advantages claimed for this plan are: (a) The time of board members was saved by eliminating useless interviews with each of a long line of applicants. (b) Time and money were saved for many applicants. (c) Credentials were evaluated by an experienced administrator. (d) The selection was kept on a professional plane.

At least two serious weaknesses appear in the foregoing case. There should have been a board committee to work with the outgoing superintendent during the search for and sorting of candidates. Some that might have appealed to board members may have been eliminated by the superintendent who did the screening. The time the board gave, fifteen minutes, to each of the candidates finally considered seems entirely too short.

Case E—A board of education of three members in charge of a school of only ten teachers in a small Middle Western community decided to employ an outstanding school superintendent [10] and used the following up-to-date procedure:

1. The board acted as its own search and screening committee but enlisted other help from a committee of nine from the local community club. This club

[10] Taken from a report especially made by the board of education of the community for this yearbook in July 1945.

was active in promoting the welfare of the community and recognized the importance of strong leadership for the school as a way of keeping the school in line with and supporting community progress.

2. The board did not relinquish any of its responsibilities to the community committee but did use that committee for counsel and for determining the wishes of local leaders. The effect of this cooperation with a community club was to put the community promptly back of the school executive finally chosen, as well as to provide stronger collective judgment during the choosing.

3. The board at the outset adopted three premises upon which to base its search for a progressive and successful school executive: (a) Offer a salary high enough to be definitely attractive to superior candidates. (b) Pledge to the candidates that the one finally chosen would have complete executive authority in administering the school, leaving the board to the field of policy-making and appraisal of results. (c) Tender a long-term contract to the successful candidate to remove the fear of displacement while getting personally and professionally established in the community. This was deemed especially important because the change of even one member on so small a board might be revolutionary.

4. The board took the initiative in its search for candidates. In fact the one finally chosen turned out to be one who had not applied for the position. The state superintendent of public instruction, the head of the department of education in the state university, presidents of various colleges in the state, and others were requested to make recommendations for the position. Twenty candidates were considered, each of whom was personally interviewed by at least the one member of the board appointed for the purpose. The credentials of all twenty were carefully studied and supplemented in needed cases by further correspondence.

5. The twenty were eliminated down to five, who were brought to the community for interviews with the board as a whole. The result was to reduce to two the number to be considered further. Additional investigation and evaluation of the records of the two finally resulted in placing one of them as a close second.

6. The top-ranking candidate was then still further investigated. Board members who had friends in the communities where he had worked interviewed them to get their impressions. Information about the man's wife was obtained which indicated that she was well liked by the women of the communities in which she had lived and that she did not meddle in school affairs. The suitability of the wife of the school superintendent was considered important in a small community where everybody needs to associate with everybody else. All the information about the candidate and his wife proved to be favorable and he was employed.

Cases F, G, H, and I—Summaries of additional cases of superintendent employment, stressing variant features:

1. *Candidates are guests of the community.* A board of education in a city of 25,000 in a North Central state appointed its standing educational com-

mittee to determine what qualifications should be essential and make a study of the principles and procedures to be used in finding a new superintendent. A basic decision was that the board should take the initiative rather than to await passively an influx of applicants. Another was that detailed consideration be given to only twelve or fifteen really select candidates determined by careful preliminary elimination and that the final choice be unanimous. One that seems unique among the procedures was that of inviting the top-ranking candidates to come as guests of the board, rather than as formal candidates. They were entertained at social affairs attended by the community at large.[11]

2. *A board uses professional help during the screening procedure but not a special screening committee.* The board of education in a large industrial city in the Middle Atlantic states, in employing a new school superintendent, first held an executive session. At this session the problem was discussed informally and in much detail, under a full realization that the board was confronted with a major problem. Subsequently a list of possible candidates was compiled by the board members suggesting prominent school superintendents whom they knew at least by reputation, by obtaining suggestions from local educators, by including names of eligible employees within the system, and by accepting some voluntary applications.

Information regarding each candidate on this select list was then gathered and another executive session arranged to consider the records. The discussions in the executive session centered around such important aspects revealed in the records as educational philosophy, temperament, success in community work, and attitude toward religious and racial questions. Out of the discussions the board gradually formulated a collective notion of the kind of superintendent desired.

The original list of twenty-five or thirty candidates was reduced to four or five. At this point professional help was enlisted. Selected members of the faculties of local institutions of higher learning were called to sit with the board and assist in evaluating the records of the remaining candidates. These professional advisers knew the community and understood professional records. Further procedures were similar to those in other cases reported.[12]

3. *A city board of education elevates local personnel.* In a city of 300,000 on the Pacific Coast the board of education has for the past twenty-five years or more, and in connection with three changes in chief executive, advanced someone from the executive staff to the superintendent's position. This procedure is defended upon the grounds that there have always been competent local candidates and upon the premise that the board of education naturally has much nearer complete information about such candidates than it could possibly gather about out-of-city candidates. The board has not refused to consider other than local candidates but has discounted them somewhat, on the theory that they

[11] A member of the Illinois Association of School Boards. "We Choose a Superintendent." *Illinois School Board Journal* 8: 108-109; September-October 1942.

[12] Taken from a typewritten report for this yearbook from the secretary and a member of the board in the city concerned, January 1945.

gather halo from the overenthusiasm of their sponsoring friends when an important appointment is pending.[13]

4. *A board in a large city uses citizens' help in choosing a superintendent.* In a city of 200,000 in a Middle Atlantic state the board of education used a citizens' advisory committee of eleven members "to canvass throughout the entire country and to recommend names without arrangements as to preference . . . of superintendents and assistant superintendents . . . who would be qualified to be superintendent of schools."

This committee of eleven, appointed by the president of the board, was made up of people representing various civic and governmental groups in the city, such as the Teachers Association, Council of Social Agencies, League of Women Voters, Parent-Teacher Association, Federation of Women's Clubs, Chamber of Commerce, Manpower Commission, and others.

The committee appointed a professional educator as secretary, set up criteria for judging the candidates, made an active search for candidates, sifted the records of ninety-eight candidates down to four, visited the communities of the four to obtain additional data, and finally recommended three candidates to the board.

The board invited each of the three to investigate to see if he was definitely interested. A committee of the board then visited the communities of two of the candidates and reported back to the board as a whole. One of the two was finally elected for a four-year term.[14]

SUMMARY OF PRINCIPLES AND PROCEDURES USED IN WHAT SEEM TO BE THE BETTER AMONG RECENT CASES OF SUPERINTENDENT EMPLOYMENT

1. The first step for the board confronted with the task of employing a new superintendent of schools is to draw up a set of standards or criteria to cover the qualifications desired. On page 61 is a list of criteria for judging a school superintendent. That list is suggestive of items that might appear in a roster for the guidance of those in immediate charge of the search. To such items should be added others pertaining to age limits, amount and kind of training, extent and kinds of professional experience, and probably the salary limits. No two boards would wish to use the same list for conditions differ with boards, communities, and school systems.

2. The second step is to decide whether there is an employee in the system who is amply qualified for the position, such as a principal or someone on the administrative staff. Promotion from the ranks is not to be discouraged, but in best practice, if done, it is done objectively, that is, in a way to prevent personal sentiment in favor of an employee from hiding a possible shortage in his professional ability. And the possible dangers from professional inbreeding must not be disregarded. The welfare of the schools and the learners in them must be protected by obtaining the best superintendent available even if that requires going outside the system.

[13] From a report for this yearbook provided by an informed official in the administrative offices.
[14] Ganders, Harry S. "Citizens Help Choose Superintendent." *Nation's Schools* 36: 28-29; July 1945.

3. If the board decides to seek for candidates outside the system, preferably without excluding worthy ones from within, it should appoint a search and screening committee, which for the sake of brevity may be called a "screening" committee. The function of the screening committee is to search for and to sort candidates according to the quality of their records and in the end to recommend a small group of top-ranking candidates for the board's final choice. This committee is best made up of board members and one or more educators familiar with the technics of evaluating professional training, experience, and ability. Sometimes a local or nearby college president or head of a college education department may serve on the committee. In smaller schools where other qualified educators may not be available the outgoing superintendent may act as a member of the screening committee. Sometimes the counsel of one or more educators is used during the procedures without having such help represented on the committee. It is imperative that the committee have board members on it and that professional counsel is provided for in some way.

4. The screening committee should be provided with clerical help. The job is important. Those competent enough to be members are busy people. Their time and ability are both too precious to be used in doing what a clerk could do as well or better. There should be a place set aside for headquarters for the committee, where files can be kept, interviews can be held, members can work as they have time, and meetings can be held.

5. It should be stressed that probably the chief function of the screening committee is to conduct a search for candidates of high caliber rather than to wait for them to appear. Some capable school superintendents prefer to let promotions seek them. If the committee considers only those, therefore, who voluntarily apply, it may miss some of the best. Suggestions for good candidates may come from board members, other local citizens, friends of the community or the schools living elsewhere, colleges or universities that train school executives, and possibly in some cases commercial placement agencies. No source of suggestion that might produce a winner should be overlooked. There is no point to inflating the number of candidates, however, except to the extent necessary to be sure that the best few available candidates are included.

6. All applications, written and personal, should funnel thru the screening committee. This arrangement should be adhered to by the board members, who should refer all inquiries and suggestions to the committee. This will save the time of board members and of candidates and give the committee complete control of the situation.

7. Making applications in person should be discouraged by the screening committee until after it has had time to review the records well enough to determine which ones have some chance to be seriously considered. Many applicants will not meet the standards set up by the board and should be detected early and eliminated from consideration. Such applicants should be firmly notified not to come in person, to save their time and money and the time of the committee.

8. Each candidate is likely to have a set of credentials furnished by his university, by a commercial agency, or in some other way. Whatever the nature of the credentials that may come without solicitation, the committee will need to obtain supplementary and verification data on its own accord, in connection with all candidates that have a chance to be seriously considered. Obtaining some of these additional data may wait until the personal interviews, but some will probably need to be assembled by correspondence before that. The committee may need forms to be sent the candidates for personal data. It may also need reference blanks to send to reliable people who know of a candidate's record. Some committees design blanks for their special needs while others use standard blanks with or without minor alterations.

9. In the semifinal work of the screening committee personal interviews should be held with several of the most promising candidates, invited to come at the expense of the district. Such interviews should be planned to yield information on personality, apparent integrity, professional knowledge, and other matters of importance not covered completely in the written record. The results of the interview with each candidate should be summarized in writing and filed with the other records of the candidate before reactions are forgotten or confused. In these interviews care must be exercised to prevent the too favorable impression that may be created by a candidate better gifted in salesmanship than in more pertinent qualifications. Continual reference to the written record should provide certified data to offset tendencies toward exaggeration, if any. Searching questions, too, often reveal any emptiness that may exist beneath the surface.

10. It is usually desirable for the committee to visit the communities where a few of the topmost candidates have lived and worked. The purpose is to gather firsthand knowledge of the degree to which the candidate has seemed to influence the community in an educational way—to catch something of the spirit of his service. The knowledge and impressions thus obtained should be carefully noted and added to the record for use in making the final appraisal upon which the committee is to base its recommendations to the board.

11. The screening committee, instead of eliminating candidates down to one, should let the board as a whole choose among a few of the top-ranking candidates. This gives the final and crucial choice a broader base and tends to insure a better match between the personality of the one finally elected and the board's liking. Because of the extreme importance of the final step in the procedures there should be a well-managed interview of adequate length between each of the candidates and the assembled board.

Signposts for Service . . .

★ *The principles which should govern the working procedures of boards of education are essentially the same whether the board is large or small and whether it serves a small community or a large city.*

★ *Boards of education should operate in accordance with law, but when law is unduly restrictive or in any other way interferes with good school administration boards should accept responsibility for seeking appropriate changes.*

★ *Boards of education should adopt bylaws which are adequate but not restrictive, adopt and periodically revise rules and regulations which state general principles to guide their own work and that of their employees, and operate without standing committees, except the committee of the whole.*

★ *Meetings of boards of education should normally be public, but boards should call executive sessions when, in their judgment, consideration for the persons concerned or the nature of the business to be transacted makes them desirable.*

★ *That meetings may not be too long and yet afford time for good group thinking, essential detail should be routinized. In advance of each meeting an agenda, accompanied by resolutions and recommendations to be presented, should be sent members, and promptly after the meeting the minutes should be sent them.*

★ *Board meetings should be formal enough for orderly procedure but informal enough to be natural, to encourage free discussion, and to promote group thinking. There should never be any "playing to the gallery."*

★ *The minutes and other records of the board are the history of its work. They should be accurate in content and orderly in arrangement. They are important and should be carefully preserved and protected but in such manner that they may be easily consulted when needed.*

CHAPTER IV

Working Procedures

THE PROCEDURES thru which school boards do their work will in large measure determine the quality and efficiency of their service. Regardless of the size and responsibility of boards, the principles which should govern their working procedures are essentially the same. The best school boards, thru constant evaluation of their own procedures and of the proposals of their executive staffs, and thru their own state and district organizations, as well as thru study by individual members, are constantly seeking to make their work more effective. Description of the good work of such boards appears in professional literature; more and more it is spread in meetings and publications of school board associations. Thus the examples of the best boards become a source of encouragement and a challenge to other boards to improve their procedures.

Operating under Law

One of the first considerations for any school board is to make sure that it is working in accordance with law. Most of the laws with which school boards are officially concerned are state laws because education is fundamentally a state function. There are, however, some provisions of city charter and city code, in the case of city schools, which must not be overlooked. This is especially true in the larger cities. In many states regulations of the state board of education and in a few states, New York for example, opinions of the commissioner of education or state superintendent of public instruction have the effect of law. In recent years there have been federal laws or administrative regulations which have had the effect of law in certain areas of vital concern to education.

The trend in the past decade toward increases in the amount of administrative law has given flexibility to school administration and permitted more rapid progress than would have occurred if reliance had been on statutory law alone. The opposition on the part of many thoughtful citizens to too great development of administrative law makes it important that state boards of education or other educational bodies with authority to make rules and regulations which have the effect of law should act with great dis-

cretion in the exercise of their powers. It is likewise important that this authority to make rules on the part of state boards shall not be too severely restricted by too aggressive statutory legislation.

State law usually prescribes the manner of selection of school board members and the length of term they shall serve. In many states the new school board member may not enter on the discharge of his duties until he has qualified by executing an oath of office. State law often requires a minimum number of meetings of the school board and sometimes specifically names the place of meeting, for example, the county court house or the office of the superintendent of schools, and meetings held elsewhere are open to question as to legality. Usually there is a legal requirement in regard to the reorganization of the school board each year, frequently enumerating the officers to be chosen and the manner of choosing them. In some states the requirement is quite specific and definite as to the date of this meeting; in others it is flexible, leaving to the local board considerable discretion. Whatever the legal requirements may be, board members should clearly understand them and scrupulously observe them, in order that no question may arise in regard to the validity of board action.

Because school legislation in some states has become so complicated, its interpretation may be an important consideration in the work of a school board. There are boards which limit their actions to those areas where the state has delegated specific authority to the local board. Other boards feel free to act in areas in which there is no denial of their authority. It is obvious that boards which proceed on the latter plan will operate with much greater freedom and flexibility than those which confine themselves to authority specifically delegated. School boards operating under the more liberal policy should exercise great discretion so as to avoid undesirable public reactions and appeals to the courts.

In states where the state superintendent of public instruction or the state board of education has power to make regulations which have the effect of law unless contrary to law, local school systems may often, by appeal to these authorities, get permission or even definite orders to do things considered by administrative authorities desirable but which local boards of education hesitate to order because of certain local considerations. This procedure is probably a two-edged sword and must be used with care, but

it is one which superintendents of schools and local boards of education may sometimes use to meet local educational problems and needs.

If legal requirements are found to be unduly restrictive or in any other way seem to hinder the program of education, school board members should be the first to recognize it and should accept the responsibility for seeking relief. Sometimes this will involve only a single board, but at other times the cooperation of other boards will be essential for the accomplishment of the purpose. When the proposed changes concern all the schools of the state, they should have the consideration of the state school board association. In some states the legislative activities of the state school board association have rendered important services to education. Proposals that might be branded as selfish, if made by the teachers themselves, are free from this handicap when sponsored by school boards.

In many states the laws governing education have accumulated over the years without any comprehensive recodification. This neglect results in much overlapping, some contradiction, and the retention of legislation which has little current value. Such neglect adds to the difficulty of school administration.

Much necessary legislation, otherwise good, is so vaguely drawn or so detailed that interpretation and administration are needlessly difficult. Unessential details not only add to the difficulty of administration but open the way for expensive, annoying, and time-consuming litigation. School boards working under these limitations with respect to laws governing their financial affairs may find their work greatly handicapped by having to defend delaying suits brought by disgruntled citizens anxious to hold school expenditures to a minimum.

Boards of education are in a strategic position to assume leadership in the correction of these conditions when they exist. In many states, no more valuable contribution can be made to the work of boards of education than the recodification of the laws governing public education, with emphasis on the elimination of overlapping, contradictory, and outmoded legislation and on rewriting the remainder with brevity, simplicity, clearness, and accuracy. The school law should give boards of education broad grants of power with a minimum of detailed prescriptions.

Organizational Policies of the Board

The election of officers of school boards does not always receive the thoughtful consideration its importance merits. The presidency of a school board calls for a person with a judicial mind who can preside with ease and efficiency, not only in routine meetings but when committees and delegations appear and when unusual problems arise. The president must be able to dispatch business and yet not permit questions to be decided without the consideration they deserve. He will often be the logical person to preside at public meetings directly or indirectly related to the work of the schools. In many ways he represents public education in the community and must therefore be able and willing to give somewhat more time to school affairs than will usually be required of other members. Because the vicepresident will likely on occasions serve in the place of the president, qualifications of the person selected for this place should be comparable to those of the president.

Depending on state law, the clerk or secretary of the school board may or may not be a member. In some states the superintendent or the supervising principal is by law the secretary of the board; in some he may be selected by the board; and in others he is not permitted so to serve. (See Chapter II.) In some systems the clerk or secretary, by law or by custom, has some administrative responsibilities. Aside from qualifications required for the performance of these duties, the clerk should be a person with good judgment who will make and keep records which are complete and accurate in content and orderly in arrangement. They are the history of the work of the school board and as such are important.

Because of the great variation among school boards in size, size of city, county, or districts served, and local traditions, generalization is difficult, but it seems appropriate to suggest that in the small school system the supervising principal or the superintendent will often be the best secretary, if legally permitted to serve. If the system is large and the business of the board correspondingly heavy and complex, serving as secretary will greatly handicap any board member in participating in discussions and in weighing the discussions of other members. Likewise it is quite difficult for a superintendent of schools who must assume responsi-

bility for presenting material to the board to serve as secretary also. Neither a board member nor the superintendent in such a system seems an altogether happy choice, unless a capable, well-trained clerk or secretary is available to take the minutes.

Legal provisions with respect to school treasurers vary greatly among the states and in some states among the cities, counties, and school districts within the state. When the school board has the responsibility of selecting its treasurer care should be exercised to secure the services of one who is scrupulously honest and has the competence to handle well the financial responsibilities of the office.[1] School treasurers handle annually hundreds of millions of dollars of money appropriated to public education. That irregularities in the handling of these funds have been exceedingly small, in both number and amount of money involved in comparison with the records in other offices where public monies are handled, speaks well for the judgment which school boards have shown in the selection of treasurers, for the integrity of the treasurers themselves, and for the public opinion which sets high standards for those who handle the money for the education of our children.

State law, statutory, administrative, or both, usually makes provision for the protection of school funds by requiring that appropriate bond be furnished by the treasurer, and frequently requires that banks which serve as depositories for school funds shall place with proper officials collateral to cover funds in their care. School boards should make sure that the bonds and the collateral required are adequate in relationship to the amount of money disbursed by the treasurer or in the possession of a bank serving as a depository of school funds, and that all legal requirements relative thereto have been met.

In recent years the trend in school board organization has been away from standing committees. Experience has shown that if school boards delegate to the professional staff responsibility for executive and administrative detail and confine themselves to legislative policy-making and evaluative functions, there is little, if any, need for standing committees. Most problems and services delegated to standing committees usually would be as well or better performed by the executive staff or at a meeting of the entire board.

[1] For further suggestions consult the 1939 yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators, *Schools in Small Communities*, pages 421-28.

Occasionally special committees for specific responsibilities may be desirable, but usually as good or even better results can be obtained if the superintendent is instructed to assemble pertinent information relative to the problem in hand and report back to the board for consideration by the membership as a whole. School boards thus freed of unnecessary executive and administrative detail usually do a better job in policy-making and planning since they have more time for deliberation and avoid the confusion resulting from handling administrative detail.

School Board Meetings

When a school board has organized or reorganized in accordance with law and has prepared for itself an appropriate set of bylaws and rules and regulations to govern its procedure and to guide the work of the school system, an excellent beginning has been made. There remains, however, the responsibility of setting up specific procedures to make its own meetings really effective. It is only when the school board is in session that its members exercise the authority and responsibility of their positions, except that there are frequently a few duties vested in the president, secretary, or treasurer by law.

TIME, PLACE, AND LENGTH OF MEETINGS

There should be a definite time and place for school board meetings. The place should be one which is conducive to good work. With few, if any, exceptions, the office where the records are available is the best place for the meeting. In a large system there will usually be a board of education room suitably furnished to accommodate the board, the superintendent, and any others who regularly attend, as well as committees, delegations, and the public generally. In small systems the offices of the superintendent or principal or a nearby room will often serve best. The business of public education is usually one of the largest businesses of a community, and boards of education are justified in making reasonable expenditures to provide a meeting place commensurate with the importance of the service rendered to the community.

The number and length of meetings will depend on the volume of business to be transacted, the manner in which the meetings are

conducted, the preparation that has been made in advance, and the efficiency of the superintendent in presenting his reports and proposals and of the president in conducting the meeting. While there will be exceptions for good reasons from time to time, experience indicates the best meetings will not be more than two or two and one-half hours in length. If more than this amount of time is required to complete the business of regular meetings, it is likely that efficiency would be increased by more frequent meetings because consideration is not as thoro and judgment is not as accurate after an extended session. (See Chapter II.)

When special meetings are found necessary, they should be called far enough in advance for members to make their plans to attend and at times which will permit proper consideration of the problems involved. They should, of course, be limited to the purposes covered in the call. While it is too much to hope for the elimination of special meetings, the number can be held to a minimum by careful anticipation of problems to be considered and presented in the regular meetings.

In planning the time, place, and number of meetings, a board should make sure that legal requirements, if any, are fully met. The public is interested in its system of schools, and it should always be possible for an interested citizen to attend a meeting of the board of education responsible for guiding the work of the schools his children attend, with the least possible inconvenience to himself. Therefore, the time and place of meetings should be known in the community; change should be made only for good reason, and such change when made should be publicly announced.

AGENDA AND ORDER OF BUSINESS

In preparation for the meetings the superintendent, or the secretary, or the two working together should prepare an agenda or schedule of topics for discussion and send it to all board members well in advance of the meetings. With the agenda should go copies of resolutions to be proposed and pertinent data to support recommendations made. This advance material will enable board members at their convenience to give prior thought to the questions which will come up for decision and thus not only speed up the meeting but also permit more mature study of the various problems under consideration. It should be understood that this

agenda is servant, not master. It will therefore be flexible and should not limit the meeting to the consideration of items listed.

A board of education should have an order of business from which variation should be made only for good reason. A good order of business will include the following, preferably in the order listed: call to order; roll call; establishment of quorum; reading and approval of minutes or approval without reading as mailed to members, with amendment if any changes or additions are made; hearing of delegations; report of superintendent; unfinished business; new business; communications; miscellaneous; and adjournment. It is important that the report and recommendations of the superintendent come early in the meeting because they should determine largely the course to be followed.

Reference has already been made to the importance of records of the board of education. They should be prepared promptly after the meeting of the board and sent as early as possible to each member and to others who should receive them. In large school systems members of the administrative staff usually receive copies. In many systems copies are given to the public library, to the officers of the local education association, and to certain municipal officials as well as to newspapers.

The minutes, reports, and other records prepared by the clerk must be accurate in content and orderly in arrangement. They should be so preserved that they may be easily consulted when needed. The minutes should be carefully indexed by subjects in order that study may be made of the action of the school board over a period of years without undue waste of time. Binders, indexes, and files should be furnished board members in order that they may systematically keep and easily consult their minutes. Indexes may be collected annually, brought up to date, and returned to members. An even better way to have regularly available in the school board office a complete history of the board's action on all questions is to keep a book in which are arranged in order, by subject, dated extracts cut from each set of minutes.

INFORMAL AND DEMOCRATIC MEETINGS

Because most citizens are interested in their schools, they will often wish to make proposals for the consideration of the board of education. Committees and delegations will attend meetings

from time to time. The board of education should make every effort to have such groups not only feel welcome but feel that their taking the trouble to come, in the interest of whatever cause brings them, is a service which the board appreciates. Usually it is best to hear delegations at the beginning of the meeting in order that any delegates who have other plans may lose as little time as possible. Sometimes the questions presented will be simple and will be disposed of while the committee or delegation is present. At other times, because the problems are more important or more complicated, it may be best to defer action until later in the meeting or, in some cases, to a later meeting. In any case, advantage should be taken of the presence of the committee to secure the point of view of its members and any other information they have which may be helpful to the board in reaching a wise decision on the question presented. (See Chapter VIII.)

In general, meetings of the board of education should be open to the public, and the meeting place should be adequate to accommodate all of the persons who are likely to be in attendance. Provisions should be made of such nature that the audience understands as fully as possible the business the board transacts. The business should be transacted in such way that there is no subterfuge or cover-up of any kind.

Sometimes when there is sharp division in the community about school problems and attendance at board meetings is larger than usual, board members have been known to address their remarks, when discussing questions under consideration, more to the audience than to the board itself. This public display is unfortunate because members of the board should be concerned with the most efficient group thinking which they can develop, and there should never be any playing to the gallery. If a member should so forget his obligations in this particular, a wise president will at the time or later privately undertake to correct the situation by tactful suggestion to the offender.

There may be times when the board should meet in executive session or as a committee of the whole. Many problems of personnel and long-time planning, especially with respect to the purchase of property and building programs, make executive sessions, or their equivalent, necessary for the best transaction of the business in hand. This will usually present little or no problem if

the school board shows every consideration to the public in the transaction of its regular routine business. Reasonable people readily recognize that there are items of business which are best handled in this way. Boards of education should never hesitate to call for executive session or for a meeting of the committee of the whole when, in their judgment, such is needed. (See Chapter VIII.)

The meeting itself should be formal enough for good work but informal enough to be natural and to have individual members feel entirely free to participate in discussions. The superintendent of schools, who normally presents most of the material for consideration of the board, and the president of the board can contribute largely to the informal atmosphere of the meeting.

Nothing is more important than that all members of the board feel themselves a part of the board and so participate in discussions preliminary to decisions. By well-directed questions, the president of the board and the superintendent can draw into the discussion those who habitually tend to hold back. It is the duty of the president to see to it that talkative members are not permitted to monopolize the meeting. The superintendent should not permit his enthusiasm for a proposal or his desire to have members know details to lead him into the error of talking too much or presenting wearisome details which board members do not desire. Adherence to the policy of making written reports, recommendations, and proposals for consideration and mailing copies to members in advance of meetings when practicable, as proposed earlier in this chapter, can keep a meeting from becoming tedious, if the superintendent uses good judgment in not giving too much verbal supplement to the written material in hand. If the superintendent is alert and knows his board, he will discover when he is giving too much detail. If wise, he will avoid repeating this mistake. If he errs too often in this particular, a kindly suggestion made privately by the president should correct this condition.

USE OF STAFF MEMBERS

Because law is often definite and specific in connection with the fiscal affairs of public education and because members of the board of education feel themselves more competent to deal with fiscal rather than with educational affairs, school boards tend to give a disproportionate amount of time to the financial problems

of school administration, with the result that problems of curriculum and instruction receive too little consideration. Thoughtful planning is sometimes necessary to insure a proper distribution of the time of the board between these two areas.

Many superintendents, instead of themselves presenting all the material to the board, have different members of the professional staff present those phases of the work for which they are responsible. This practice has many advantages. It permits the superintendent to recognize some of those who are actually doing the work with children; board members become better acquainted with a considerable number of members of the staff; work of staff members is toned up in preparation for such appearances and they themselves grow professionally from making or guiding the presentation for their departments; and it builds morale in the system as a whole and in the community and has a good public relations value.

Some boards of education, in order to understand better the curriculum and instructional problems of the system, set aside one meeting a month for this definite purpose. To this meeting the superintendent invites representative teachers, principals, and supervisors to report on and interpret to the board what is being done in their respective areas. Sometimes there may be demonstrations of actual classroom work, or individual or group performance of children in music, choral reading, or some other activity which lends itself to this procedure. At other times there can be written or verbal reports, or both, showing the work of the school in the units under consideration for this particular meeting, with opportunity for questions from board members and answers from those most competent to give them. This plan has much to commend it, when the members of the board are able to give the time necessary to make such meetings possible.

THE SECRETARY

Few things contribute so much to the efficiency of the school board as a capable, experienced secretary or clerk. It is hard to estimate his worth when the clerk has thoroly mastered the work of the office, knows the laws relating to the schools, is familiar with the routine, records, and reports of the board, knows the educational history of the community, keeps accurate and com-

plete records, can quickly find the records of past actions of the board on specific subjects, and has the imagination to anticipate from the agenda, to a reasonable degree, the trend of a meeting, and have at his finger tips the information likely to be needed. School boards should seek persons of this kind for clerks, help them develop well the qualifications needed for the job, and keep them because they grow more valuable with experience.

THE PRESS

If meetings of the board are public, as suggested elsewhere, it goes without saying that reporters will be present. The superintendent, the clerk, and the entire board should be certain that they are completely fair and considerate in their dealings with representatives of the press. When there is more than one newspaper in the community it is particularly important that no preference be shown or appear to be shown. Occasionally representatives of the press are made unhappy by executive sessions, and sometimes the editorial policy of a paper may be affected thereby. When a school system is fortunate enough to have the same press representative over a period of years, a relationship can usually be built up between the school and the press which will make it possible for the reporter to have confidential background information on new plans and policies as it develops, with the understanding that it will not be used until authorization is given by the superintendent or the board. In many cities this relationship is such that newspaper representatives sit with the board in executive sessions or in the meetings of the committee of the whole but never report anything from such meetings. Superintendents and boards of education may well devote much time to the development of this spirit of cordiality and cooperation.

RELIEVING THE TENSION

Many boards of education and their superintendents find it possible to relieve the tension which intense consideration of important problems produces by a break of some kind about the middle of the meeting. This can be afforded in a variety of ways—brief musical or dramatic selections by students, the serving of light refreshments by a group of students from the home economics department, or a mere pause when business ceases and the

group spends a few minutes informally around a box of candy or cookies brought by some of the members or the superintendent. For variety these periods of informality may be planned around holidays, seasons, special occasions, and birthdays of board members and others who regularly attend the meetings.

In the study of boards made by the NEA Research Division (see Chapter II for other details) it was found that about one-third of the school boards in the United States occasionally or regularly have luncheon or dinner in connection with their meetings. Sixty-three percent report that meals are "never" arranged. In general, "eating together" is less characteristic of rural boards than of city boards, the only exception to this being the county boards where, as in the cities, about half of the boards "occasionally" eat meals together.

Aids for Board Members

Public education has been fortunate in having as members of boards of education persons who give generously of their time. Many board members welcome and will take advantage of opportunities for improvement of their qualifications thru the study of professional literature. This wish has led many boards of education to provide professional bookshelves in their meeting places. On these shelves are to be found the publications considered most helpful to school board members. They will include a variety of items—reports of school surveys, bulletins of school board associations, yearbooks of professional organizations, an occasional book on school administration with some specific treatment of the work of the school board, and other miscellaneous material.[2] A little time spent by a superintendent of schools in studying such material and preparing suggestions for its most convenient use will insure larger and more helpful use by members of the board than if they are left to take the material without any suggestions. Some boards have subscribed for professional journals and magazines to be received by board members at their homes.

Carefully planned visiting in the local schools, and occasionally in schools in other communities for specific reasons, may be very

[2] For suggestions see the selected references printed at the end of this yearbook.

helpful to members of school boards in the performance of their duties. Many boards of education follow the procedure of authorizing their president or some other member to attend professional meetings planned for school administrators, in order to become familiar with the philosophy and thinking of administrators other than their own superintendent.

In recent years state associations of school boards have increased in number and have assumed important places in the educational life of the respective states.[3] In many states specific legislation has been passed legalizing the payment from school funds of membership dues in such organizations. In states in which such legislation has been secured it has been easier to build the membership of the associations than in states in which board members must themselves pay these dues. States without such legislation may wisely provide it. The meetings and other activities of a strong state school board association will return to public education values worth many times the cost involved.

A number of state school board associations which have the financial resources now make studies and prepare reports and publications which are helpful to their members and to others who receive them. As mentioned elsewhere in this chapter, legislation and other recommendations for improvement of education which come from school board members are often much more readily received by the public generally than the same recommendations would be if proposed by teachers themselves. Experience indicates that when superintendents and school board presidents give thoughtful consideration to the ways by which board members may become better equipped for their service, members rather readily avail themselves of the opportunities.

Inducting New Members

Because school board service well performed does consume much time, busy men and women often feel after a few years of service that they must retire from the board. As a result, there is a constant stream of new members coming on boards of education thruout the country. Too often new members are left to find their

[3] Campbell, Roald F. "State School-Board Associations." *School and Society* 62: 276-78; October 27, 1945.

duties and responsibilities with little or no help from anyone. There is much that can be done to help the new member prepare for his duties. The very fact that he has accepted membership on the board indicates a readiness to serve his community. He is anxious, as he begins his work, to know what his duties and responsibilities will be and will give time and thought to preparation for them, if he has some guidance.

As soon as a new board member is appointed or elected, a letter might appropriately be written by the board of education officially extending him a welcome to the group. A similar letter might appropriately be written by the superintendent of schools. The new member should be furnished a copy of the school laws, the local bylaws and regulations, and copies of minutes of recent meetings of the board, to help him become familiar with current problems. Sometimes the new member will be interested in visiting the schools. These visits afford excellent opportunities for encouraging other members to visit the schools. Conferences of the president of the school board and of the superintendent of schools with the new member will afford him an opportunity to discuss questions which are arising in his own thinking and will permit them to interpret to him much that is being done in the school system. An invitation to attend meetings of the school board as a visitor, until such time as he takes his place officially, will usually be appreciated by the new member and will be helpful in preparing him for work when his duties begin.

Use of Legal Counsel

In many states there is specific provision for legal services for boards of education thru the commonwealth attorney, corporation counsel, or similar local official. Legal assistance is often available in the office of the state board of education. It is always possible to take questions to the office of the attorney general of the state, but in some states this officer will render an opinion only if there is an actual case in hand. Frequently school boards avail themselves of the legal services of public-spirited attorneys in the community who are willing to make this contribution to education without charge to the board.

In some of the larger school systems the school board employs a full-time attorney. Often he attends all meetings of the school board to advise on questions which may arise. Businessmen serving on school boards, accustomed to having attorneys present at meetings of boards of directors of corporations, often want an attorney present at all board meetings. In smaller systems such an attorney is sometimes retained for only part of his time. In some localities there are attorneys who make a business of trying to secure retainers from a number of boards of education.

Many thoughtful students of school board procedure doubt the necessity for the presence of an attorney at board meetings, except occasionally when legal questions are under consideration. They point to the tendency on the part of attorneys to give strict legalistic interpretations to questions which arise and the consequent tendency to restrict quite definitely the work of the board. They argue that when legal service is needed the board can secure it from the commonwealth attorney or the corporation counsel, or if large problems are involved, special counsel can be employed.

With respect to the use of the commonwealth attorney or the corporation counsel, there are some who feel that the interests of the school board and those of the county or municipality, to which the elected or appointed counsel is directly responsible, sometimes clash and that counsel other than the commonwealth attorney or corporation counsel should be available to the school board. It would appear that the interests of the school board and the county or municipality are so closely related that in most cases this should present no problem. It still is possible, if such a problem is presented, for the school board to employ special counsel.

In some states which require certificates for superintendents of schools, the requirement is made that the professional training on the basis of which the certificate is issued shall include a course, or courses, in school law. Further development of this kind of preparation for the office of superintendent of schools will enable superintendents to guide boards of education in most questions which may arise. There remained even then situations where the board should employ competent legal talent.

Bylaws and Rules and Regulations

To govern its own work, every board of education should have a set of bylaws. These should be simple, brief, and specific. They should set up clearly the duties of the officers of the board and the procedures by which the board will transact its business. Long, detailed bylaws tend to weakness rather than strength, and may unduly restrict the board instead of serving as a guide.

To guide the board itself in its relationships to the administrative staff and to the school system as a whole and to guide the administrative staff and other employees of the board in their work, comprehensive statements of policies, principles, and procedures are also necessary. These are usually referred to as rules and regulations. They are sometimes a part of the bylaws of the board of education, but better practice separates them. Bylaws, which govern the working procedures of the board of education only, require little change from time to time. Rules and regulations, which outline policies, principles, and procedures, should be changed in the light of experience, and more frequent revision therefore becomes desirable. Because change will be made from time to time, it seems wise to propose that rules and regulations may well be in loose-leaf form to which supplements may be added. If the manual is in bound form, the same end may be attained by leaving blank pages in the back, to which revisions and additions may be attached as they are made. Periodically, probably once in five years, complete revision should be made.

It may be possible for a superintendent and his staff to incorporate in a set of rules and regulations a complete statement of policies, principles, and procedures which guide the work of the schools at a given time, but such a manual would probably be too detailed to serve its purpose. It therefore seems wise for a board to include only the most important items in the rules and regulations, leaving to administration the responsibility for deciding specific problems in harmony with the broad principles laid down. In time as new policies and practices are introduced there will arise the necessity for reconsideration of the fundamental statements of policy and principle which make up the rules and regulations and their revision in terms of the changes gradually taking place in the system.

Considering how much carefully prepared rules and regulations may contribute to the effectiveness of work in a school system, it is amazing how little attention has been paid to them by superintendents and boards of education. Every survey which has been made indicates that relatively few boards of education have up-to-date rules and regulations. Indeed, it is not unusual to find good school systems in which the latest copy of the rules and regulations of the board of education may be thirty or more years old. In many systems no such manual, even in typed or mimeographed form, is available.

This situation often means that many changes and additions have been made over the years by action of the board and recorded in the minutes, but no one has a complete list of these changes. As a result work may or may not be proceeding in complete accordance with the official actions of the board. It would seem, however, that periodic revision and publication would be helpful to all concerned.

There is great variation in the items included in rules and regulations of different boards of education in cities not greatly different in size. One large city's recently adopted set of rules and regulations, considered to be among the best now in use, has the following chapter headings:

1. Board of Education
2. Authorized Services—Elementary School, Junior and Senior High School, Special Schools, Evening School, Lunchroom, Transportation, etc.
3. Administrative Organization
4. Appointment, Assignments and Supervision of Employees
5. Probation, Suspension and Termination of Employment
6. Salary Schedule for Professional Employees
7. Salary Schedule for Civil Service Employees
8. Absence of Employees
9. Miscellaneous Personnel Regulations
10. Pupils
11. School Houses and School Property
12. Intra-School Funds and Pupil Fees
13. Miscellaneous.

In the foreword of the foregoing manual the superintendent emphasizes that the manual does not provide definite and final answers to all questions of policy or procedure. He calls on all employees to accept responsibility for the intelligent study

and interpretation of the general rules in relation to the needs of those with whom they work, for their application to the problems which arise, and for calling attention to any regulations which violate the educational purposes of their schools.

The school boards of America are among the most, if not the most, important public services enjoyed by our people. The welfare of all the children and of the nation itself is involved. The procedures used by school boards in rendering these services, in large measure, determine the quality and efficiency of the educational program. That we have developed one of the world's greatest programs of public education is generally recognized by competent authorities. That this program has been developed under the leadership of school boards is a tribute to their wisdom, as well as to the sound public opinion that has supported them. But to maintain this level school boards must constantly evaluate their own procedures and the work of their school staffs, and thru their own school board organizations, as well as thoro study by individual members, constantly seek to make their own methods more effective.

Signposts for Service . . .

★ *School boards and administrators should put the welfare of the pupils above all other considerations and make every possible effort to advance that welfare.*

★ *Since good teaching can be expected only from well-prepared and professionally minded teachers, boards insist that only the best available be employed. Within its means the wise board safeguards and promotes the economic welfare and professional advancement of teachers and other school personnel.*

★ *Boards and administrators can demonstrate conclusively that they believe in democratic processes of administration by being glad to talk over with teachers and other employees personnel policies before they are instituted or changed.*

★ *School boards appreciate the dignity of each individual, whether teacher, supervisor, custodian, or pupil, regardless of the circumstances of his birth or rearing.*

★ *The first objective of a school board is to provide in every classroom a teacher who will command the respect of the children, who has a thoro knowledge of individual problems and group psychology, and who has achieved adulthood intellectually and emotionally.*

★ *Personnel problems must not be left to chance or to decisions based on expediency. They will not take care of themselves. Only by careful, continuous planning will the school system operate under consistent policies.*

★ *It would be economy for many boards to release teachers and professional workers from clerical duties they now perform, leaving them free to devote their energies to the skilled technical services for which they are employed.*

★ *By going as far as possible in setting objective standards and in removing the question of employment from the realm of personal judgment, boards of education can build staff morale.*

CHAPTER V

Personnel Responsibilities and Policies

IN EVERY SCHOOL DISTRICT, whether large or small, the school board is an employer. In one instance the board may employ only one person, the teacher of a one-room school. In another the board may employ three thousand teachers and more than one thousand other persons. But whether their employees are many or few, school boards find that their employment problems and personnel policies constitute one of the most important, and at the same time one of the most delicate, areas of their work. Everywhere the goals are similar, the basic principles much the same. There are wide differences, of course, in the specific personnel problems which boards encounter and in the actual personnel practices by means of which the common goals are sought.

Getting and Keeping the Right Employee

The school board's first objective is to provide, in every classroom, a teacher who will command the respect of the children, who has a thoro knowledge of individual problems and group psychology, and who has achieved adulthood intellectually and emotionally. Similarly, the board wants to provide other professional and nonprofessional workers who are skilful and cooperative for whatever nonteaching services the school system requires. How can this be done? How can the board remove subjective elements in securing school employees? How can it rule out those largely extraneous influences which too often enter into the selection of employees, such as shape of face, degree of pigmentation, sparkle and color of the eye, church affiliation, stature, and weight? How can the board, once its selection has been made, maintain high morale among its employees and retain the services of the most valuable among them? These are some of the questions with which this chapter deals.

As the school board member recalls his experiences with the different personalities on the staff of the school he attended, he realizes that getting and keeping the right employees, especially teachers, become the most vital jobs a school board member per-

forms. This experience of going to school is perhaps the chief background material of the American school board member with respect to personnel problems, the chief basis for his thinking as a member of the board on many phases of personnel management. Each board member's ideas of what constitutes an enlightened employer are based on his or her experience as a lawyer, housewife, industrial employee, engineer, union leader, or farmer. These variations in background may make it hard for the board to arrive at sound *group* decisions which represent their collective judgment.

The personnel policies of the board obviously should not be formulated to meet the whim of some one member who is able to dominate the group. On the contrary, board policies should be the result of open discussion, exchange of experience, and careful evaluation of the needs of the district. The community properly expects the board to be better than the individuals on it. It expects the board to lead. It will be quick to criticize if the board's personnel practices are not of the generally approved type, if they do not result in improvement in educational services.

The modern school board should be aware of the rapid changes that have taken place, and are still taking place, in personnel administration. There is a difference between the adoption of personnel policies—a proper school board function—and actual personnel administration, which, in all but the smallest districts, is the work of the board's executive officer rather than of the school board itself. The larger the school system becomes, the more complex must be the organization by means of which personnel problems are administered. Large urban systems have supervisory leadership in addition to the superintendent of schools, and a personnel division in the central office staff, with one or more full-time personnel officers. But large or small, the school board will be concerned with setting standards and formulating sound policies, leaving the details of personnel administration to the proper executive officers.

Personnel problems must not be left to chance—to a series of spur-of-the-moment decisions. They will not take care of themselves. In the absence of careful, continuous planning the school system will soon find that it is using haphazard and inconsistent policies. For example, teachers and nurses may be selected on the

SUPERINTENDENT—*the school board's executive officer. Working with a skilled administrative staff, he uses democratic means to carry out the policies of the school board and to bring effective professional technics to the school's program.*

Photograph by
Rebecca Snyder, New York, New York

basis of professional merit, but custodians on the basis of patronage. In other districts unfair variations in salary, tenure status, sick-leave, and retirement allowances are lowering the morale of the entire school staff. Such situations indicate a failure of the board to recognize and accept its functions in personnel matters.

The test of a board's belief in democracy lies in its personnel procedure. The board cannot preach democracy to the children and the public and disregard the dignity of the individual in its personnel practices. The complaint that children do not respect our democratic government often may have its beginnings in the procedures of boards of education which, while advocating democratic doctrines, deny sick-leave benefits to their employees, dismiss their employees without just cause or hearings, and practice unjustifiable discriminations in salary payments.

Within his own limitations each employee believes that he is doing the best possible job. Better work can be done if the employee knows how to overcome the obstacles before him. He is best helped to self-appraisal thru the cooperative effort of group discussions.

The requirements of an adequate personnel program include (a) a continuing analysis of procedure and a continuous study of records; (b) supervisory leadership; and (c) an adequate system of personnel records. It is the duty of the board to see to it that these needs are satisfied by the employment of adequate personnel and the delegation of power to its executive head to implement a good personnel program. The school board which has authorized those procedures that will make people work with zeal and feel they are treated fairly and squarely has discovered the true meaning of sound personnel administration.

As different personnel policies and procedures are discussed in the later sections of this chapter, it is hoped that each reader will relate the discussion to his own school district. It may be of value to some school board members just as it is presented. Others must change it to apply to their own situations and must freely adapt the principles to their respective needs. In either case the chapter is intended as an overview of the successful experience of American school boards in achieving the goal of getting and keeping the right employees.

Areas of Personnel Responsibility

Many years ago personnel problems were centered exclusively around classroom teachers. In small school districts this may still be true. Today in larger modern communities the problem is broader and more complex; the board must first decide what services are to be rendered, then provide the necessary personnel. In education, as in industry, specialization has become the rule. In a large urban-school district the school board's personnel problems will extend not only to teachers but also to a corps of social workers, counselors, psychologists, doctors, dentists, clerks, custodians, cafeteria workers, and so on—to a nonteaching staff which numbers perhaps a third of the total number of employees.

It is the function of the school board to create the positions necessary to carry on the services it expects the schools to render. In so doing it sets limits upon the thoroness and effectiveness of the school system. For example, twelve-year-old John, who has second-grade reading ability, can be allowed to sit in the back of his classroom unable to take part in what his group is doing, or he can be tested to discover his limitations and interests and put in a class where his individual needs will be met. Which course is followed, in a given school, is likely to depend on the board's personnel policies; on whether or not psychologists and other specialists are employed; on the number of special teachers available for corrective and remedial work.

The board adopts plans for the maintenance of school buildings and school properties, determining the number of employees needed for this work and the degree of specialization which will make for economy and efficiency in plant operation. In small school districts a single custodian will be the board's only regular employee concerned with maintenance. In large districts there may be hundreds of such workmen classified in such groups as engineers, firemen, custodians, cleaners, gardeners, watchmen, carpenters, painters, plumbers, and mechanics. In each case the board makes decisions as to the work to be done and agrees upon the quality of work expected in each area before creating the necessary positions.

Another important area of school service is clerical work—care of records, management of school supplies, financial accounting, and numerous business matters that center in any modern school

office. Is the principal required to do a clerk's work or is he in a position to delegate the details of filing, checking, ordering and handling of supplies, and the answering of routine letters and telephone calls? Do the teachers have sufficient clerical help with their necessary pupil records? Many boards overlook the opportunity to enrich their program at slight expense by expansion of the nonteaching staff. Presumably professional workers are paid on a *professional* scale for the performance of *professional* services. It would be dollars-and-cents economy for many boards to release teachers and professional workers from clerical duties they now perform, leaving them free to devote their energies to the skilled technical services for which they were employed. If any board is in doubt on this point, it should authorize an analysis of the clerical work to be done for the entire school system, including an estimate of the time and personnel required to do it.

In large districts, especially, the various positions and jobs need to be carefully classified. Definite job classifications and written instructions for job performance, evolved thru the cooperative work of the superintendent, the board, and the entire school staff, are aids to systematic objective procedures in personnel management. The board, first of all, must authorize the personnel classification of all its employees. Later it considers, evaluates, and eventually adopts the classifications which seem fairest and best adapted to district needs. A careful job classification reveals whether or not employees in similar positions are receiving similar wages. The nature of each person's duties is defined, minimum educational and experience requirements for the job are specified, personal qualifications are stated, and relationships among the various classifications of workers are clarified. Each employee comes to a better understanding of his own functions, sees his work in relation to that of others, and finds some objective basis for examining and evaluating his own specific problems. Even when the district is too small to warrant an elaborate system of job classifications, some specific outline of duties for each employee will often prove helpful. Study of the job classifications used in large urban centers may help the school board in a small school system to arrive at a sound and reasonable decision as to the amount and quality of work which its employees can be expected to perform.

Altho the point has been stressed elsewhere that the school

board should not engage directly in the details of personnel administration, this principle can scarcely be overemphasized. Centralization of responsibility and delegation of authority within the framework of rules and regulations make for efficient administration. All personnel rules should be for the purpose of securing and retaining the services of the best available persons. The policy having been established, it becomes the function of the superintendent to find and recommend the appointment of those who fit into the pattern which the board has established. The two keys to good personnel administration are an intelligent plan or pattern adopted by the board and a qualified superintendent to apply the pattern.[1]

The personnel policies of each board of education are subject to the searchlight of community opinion. Altho its revenues are limited by statute and by the will of the property owners, boards with comparable resources often differ greatly with respect to the quality of service which they have the ingenuity to offer. The board's obligation to the children of the community should be the controlling factor in all its personnel regulations. In addition, however, the board must keep in mind its obligations to its employees and its duty to the public at large to manage the schools as economically as possible. This task is not an easy one, but it is one no board can evade and none can afford to fail.

Selecting and Employing an Efficient Staff

The function of the board of education does not end with authorizing and defining a series of positions. Its personnel regulations extend far beyond this point—to decisions with respect to necessary qualifications, to the terms and conditions of employment. Some of the important areas of board responsibility in the selection and employment of the staff are explored here.

USE OF OBJECTIVE STANDARDS

The general qualifications that the school board seeks in each of its employees are the specialized skills necessary to do the job, including sufficient education, balanced personality, sound physical health, and emotional stability. To translate these general

[1] For a further discussion of the proper relationships of the board and superintendent, see especially Chapter IV.

qualifications into objective standards, however, is difficult. How can specialized skills be determined accurately? How much education is *sufficient?* What reliable and objective facts can be obtained with respect to the applicant's personality, health, and emotional stability? Difficult as these questions are, boards of education are making real progress in answering them. Every board, in its personnel policies, should go as far as possible in setting objective standards, in removing the question of employment from the realm of personal judgment, for teachers, professional workers, clerks, custodians, and other nonteaching personnel. The offer of employment, in every case, should depend on evidence of the ability to render capable service, never on personal favoritism or acquiescence to the pressure of any individual or group.

CERTIFICATION

The most obvious form of objective standard for school employees is the requirement of a proper license as required by state law. Valid certificates may be necessary for teachers, supervisors, and administrators, for counselors, attendance officers, and members of the school health department. The board itself will not check on the licenses of prospective employees but will receive evidence on this point from the superintendent of schools as a part of his recommendations for appointment. A systematic check on required credentials is important because of the bearing it has on the legality of contracts.

In addition to the certificates required by law, some boards of education make it their policy to require certain related forms of evidence. For example, in some large city districts all professional employees must pass locally administered examinations in subject-matter and perhaps tests of aptitude, personality, and emotional stability. In certain districts applicants are required, or at least urged, to take the National Teachers Examinations. In a few communities civil service examinations or locally devised tests of civil service pattern are required for part or all of the noncertificated school employees. While technically these procedures do not involve certification, they are closely related to it in purpose.

The state accrediting agency may issue more than one grade or class of certificate for a given position. It is the board's policy which determines whether the lowest grade or the highest grade

of certificate will be satisfactory in the district. Again, the local school board usually has the authority to set academic standards over and above those required for state certification. For example, a valid certificate is still issued for many positions on the basis of two years of special training. In states where this is true certain boards may require college graduation for all applicants, a local method of certification which goes beyond the minimum legal requirement.

PREEMPLOYMENT HEALTH EXAMINATIONS

Altho health often is regarded as a personal and intimate matter, school authorities and the general public now expect the instructional and noninstructional employees of a modern school system to have good health. School employees are in daily contact with the children. It is of public concern that they be alert and well. The board member who does not believe that teaching school is a strenuous profession has not stopped to consider the daily requirements of the task. How are school directors to be sure that prospective teachers, custodians, cafeteria workers, and others are in good physical condition? They can be sure only when board policy requires a thoro health examination as a prerequisite for employment. In some districts this examination must include, among other things, a blood test and chest X-ray. Without such precautions it is still possible in many districts for a teacher to die of pulmonary tuberculosis after an absence from the classroom of only a few days. The requirement of an adequate preemployment examination cannot be overemphasized. Many undesirable applicants who would qualify according to all other standards are screened out when adequate physical standards are applied.

The preemployment physical examination is quite important for nonprofessional employees. A custodian must have not only the ability to get along with children and teachers but also the physical endurance necessary for his job. This position is often held by older men because they are willing to give the longer hours involved. Altho a satisfactory custodian may be old in years, the position requires the services of an able-bodied man. It is not easy to get out at five in the morning in zero weather to tend the boilers and remain until after the local political meeting is over for the evening, or to wash walls all day long on a hot summer day.

The board that fails to assure itself that all its employees, teachers, custodians, and cafeteria workers are able-bodied and free from communicable diseases is failing in its duty to the children.

EXPERIENCE REQUIREMENTS

Boards differ greatly with respect to the type and amount of experience which they require of applicants. Some school systems make it a practice to employ no inexperienced persons. Others accept inexperienced applicants of promise, in fact preferring them to persons whose experience has been obtained in some other type of community and perhaps with the minimum of professional guidance and supervision.

The superintendent, rather than the board itself, is responsible for obtaining and evaluating the experience record of applicants for school employment. It is a function of the board to decide whether or not previous experience will be required and, if so, to define in its official policies the general kind and amount of experience which will be required of appointees to various types of positions.

RESIDENCE AS A FACTOR IN EMPLOYMENT

The idea of home-town school jobs for home-town boys and girls derives from the days when school was held in the neighbor's parlor and from the belief that almost any older girl can take care of younger children. Many school boards have at times used the power given to them by the state to give their own proteges school jobs. Some boards more or less consistently refuse to employ non-local applicants. As a matter of fact, virtually the last characteristic to qualify an individual for school employment is the fact that he is a home-town product. Where this requirement has been enforced it has often led to questionable practices, particularly to personal and political favoritism, and nepotism. The practice is particularly unfortunate because it so often happens that, of two applicants, the poorer qualified, less efficient one is chosen.

In small communities where many of the residents are descendants of those who established the town, resentment often occurs and animosity is shown toward those who come into that community, bringing with them new ideas and practices. Yet it is the small community which is least likely to have well-qualified local appli-

cants for all its school positions. It is the small community which, educationally, can least afford to exclude employees from outside of the district.

Especially in rural communities the argument is presented that the local teacher can be obtained at a lower salary because of home residence; that less expense is necessary because of the mode of living. Against this possible advantage, however, it must be kept in mind that, where home-town applicants are given preference, many of them secure positions before they are ready for responsibility. The high-school graduate with a limited amount of college preparation often obtains a certificate or permit and enters the classroom in the same school or locality in which he was reared. In such cases the cooperation which is needed between home and school is often lacking. Mrs. Jones, a home-town resident, remembers when Susie Smith had tantrums and expects Miss Smith, who is now the teacher, to have similar tantrums.

So numerous and real are the problems arising from the employment of local teachers that some boards have adopted the extreme policy of considering *no* local applicants. Sometimes they have found it impossible to choose between local applicants without creating jealousies and local turmoil. This extreme position is not advocated, but the existence of the policy is common enough that it cannot be ignored.

Absence of the home-town requirement in employment does not preclude the desirability of residence near the school in the case of the custodian, irrespective of the size or type of community. Here the job involves public property which needs constant supervision.

It is the policy of the board of education in some larger cities to give priority to graduates of the city's own teachers college or normal school. This practice may have some justification during a period of greatly expanding school enrolments. At present, however, most cities that maintain their own teachers colleges look upon them as a means of economy, for they make available locally a regular supply of teachers ready for employment at the minimum salary. Today state teachers colleges and universities assure a supply of teachers for most communities in normal times, and the local, tax-supported teachers college has little to recommend it.

There is no such thing as a right to a job in a school system, except that which is based on the efficiency and training of the applicant. Where the applicant lives and his need for the job are secondary. Hence, while the home-town applicant should not be excluded from consideration, it must be emphasized that unless the local applicant has as good or better qualifications than the out-of-town applicant, it is false economy to employ him.

DISCRIMINATIONS AND UNWARRANTED CONTRACT RESTRICTIONS

Boards of education usually have the legal authority to set up a great many prerequisites for employment. Every policy which a board adopts in this area, however, should be carefully examined and its results thoroly explored. Many such policies, in addition to the residence requirement already considered, involve unfair discriminations that are at best questionable, if not wholly indefensible.

The policy of not employing married women as teachers may be cited as an illustration. Married women were not eligible for regular positions in a majority of city-school systems in the immediate prewar years, and in many cities the contracts of single women teachers were terminated at marriage. Can such a policy be justified? Apparently not on the basis of the quality of teaching service, for all studies of the question have shown that married teachers, generally speaking, are just as efficient as single teachers. Can education get the best qualified women workers, if after long years of preparation women teachers are consistently forced to leave their chosen profession? Is it good social policy to discourage marriage on the part of women teachers, when marriage is recognized as a normal aim in life and frequently is an aid to individual stability and personal adjustment? Since there are strong arguments on both sides of this question, it is not one to be settled lightly, nor in terms of personal prejudices. Fundamently, it would appear that marriage, no less than place of residence, is a secondary and largely irrelevant factor. The basic question is not, "Is the applicant married?" but rather, "Is this the best-qualified applicant for the position that is vacant?"

Similar discriminatory policies sometimes are adopted by setting up unfair age limits. Blanket age regulations often operate unfairly. Seldom openly, but sometimes indirectly—even in violation of state

law—a few school boards require certain political, fraternal, or religious affiliations as a prerequisite to employment. These last-named practices cannot be too strongly condemned.

Closely related to unwarranted discriminations in employment are objectionable contracts which restrict the personal liberties of teachers or other employees. Thru contract regulations extraneous to their work, the board often makes the community adjustment of new employees more difficult. Teachers are sometimes asked to sign contracts prohibiting dates except on week ends, prohibiting smoking, or designating the hair style or make-up that a teacher may use. Such restrictions for adult men and women are inexcusable. Obvious and unnecessary intrusions on the personal affairs of the individual drive away the most valuable employees.

ELIGIBILITY LISTS

Large city systems make regular use of eligibility lists in appointing teachers, principals, and supervisors, and sometimes other classes of school employees. The lists are made up of all applicants who can meet the series of announced minimum standards. Then ratings are assigned and recommendations for appointment are made from among those at the top of the list. Eligibility ratings are worked out by a staff committee working in cooperation with the superintendent's office or the personnel department. In systems large enough to justify the use of eligibility lists, authority to establish them and regulations with respect to their manner of operation must be incorporated into the board's employment policies.

PROBATIONARY APPOINTMENT

Especially in school districts subject to state tenure laws, the initial contract with an employee usually provides for a period of probation. Even where tenure laws are not a factor, and in the case of clerks and other nonteaching personnel, temporary appointment which is in effect a probationary form of employment may be the regular practice.

EMPLOYMENT TECHNICS

Operating within the framework of school board policies in areas such as those just explored, the superintendent of schools, or his representative, will seek out and recommend appointees for all

vacancies. The exact manner in which suitable applicants are found, the methods used in evaluating their credentials, and the final details of entering into the contract will differ, of course, in school systems of various sizes and types. The participation of the school board member in a rural or small town school system can be expected to differ from that of the board member in a city of a half million inhabitants. In smaller communities the superintendent may wish to invite direct suggestions by school board members for a given vacancy. He may wish to have the board consider and help him appraise the personality and general fitness of certain candidates who are well known to them all. Even in such cases, however, the same general principle holds: namely, it is the function of the board to set up the general qualifications for the job, and the function of the superintendent to evaluate the available applicants and recommend the one which he regards as best fitted for it. If the superintendent wishes the advice of the board with respect to one or more applicants before he presents a recommendation, the matter should be placed before the board as a whole in regular meeting, thereby avoiding the danger of one member becoming the protagonist of a particular candidate for appointment.

Maintaining Staff Efficiency

Policies that enable a board of education to retain the services of that employee, to maintain his efficiency, and to increase the value of his services to the school system as he continues in it involve adequate compensation and recognition, opportunities for growth and professional advancement, security of position, reasonable loads, considerate treatment in all phases of employment, and adequate provision for retirement at the appropriate time.

SALARY SCHEDULING

School money buys nothing more valuable than personal service. A definite schedule of salaries, or scale of wages, gives the employee a clear idea of the financial interest of the school district with respect to his future employment. By substituting orderly processes for individual bargaining, harmony and confidence are encouraged, and better teaching service rendered. Salary scheduling establishes the expected budgetary needs of the district.

An adequate salary schedule makes it possible for school employees to live on a respectable economic level and to make adequate provisions for old age and emergencies. For professional employees it provides for the costs of continued professional growth. A satisfactory schedule takes into account the cost of living in the district and provides for cost-of-living increases when sharp or consistent increases justify that adjustment. The beginning salary should be adequate, of course, and in general comparable to the beginning salaries of other persons of equal training and ability in the same community. If young people are to become interested in the teaching profession, a fair standard recommends that the maximum salary be at least two and one-half times the minimum and that there should be regular increments spaced over a substantial part of the total probable period of employment. Certainly the present national average salary of teachers, principals, and supervisors (estimated at $1786 in 1944-45) is not high enough to attract the competent young people needed in the postwar years.

In the development of a satisfactory salary schedule the board must rely heavily on the professional advice and leadership of the superintendent of schools. Few board members will have either the time or interest to become thoro students of salary scheduling, but all board members should have some acquaintance with the major issues and problems involved. Typical of the broad questions for which the board must find an official answer are these: What minimum salary is *adequate,* in relation to the kind and amount of preparation required of the beginning employee? What maximum salary will be allowed? How many increments will be granted in going from the minimum to the maximum? Will the basis for increments be experience, further preparation, or both? Will any salary differential be granted when persons of equal training and experience are employed at different grade levels, or in different types of positions? Will men and women of equal training and experience be paid identical salaries when employed in the same types of positions? Should any family bonus, or dependency allowances, enter into the salary schedule? Will merit ratings be used in any way, either to grant or to withhold scheduled increases? What credit is to be allowed for experience outside of the school system?

To some of these questions neither educational theory nor actual practice can give a positive answer. They are still controversial and must be decided by each board in the light of the best professional guidance it can receive and in view of local conditions known to the board. On certain problems of salary scheduling, however, rather definite trends and practices can be pointed out. The preparation-type schedule, for example (often called the single-salary schedule, because it allows the same compensation at all grade levels to teachers having equivalent training and experience), has been officially endorsed by the National Education Association and is quite generally favored above the position-type schedule. On other problems, too, experience is beginning to point the way to certain practices that seem distinctly superior to others.

Many school systems have had gratifying success in developing a salary schedule by means of a committee composed of representatives of the board of education, the administration, and the employees affected by it. In a committee of this type all points of view are considered and a workable schedule usually can be devised. Technical information and advice on various phases of salary scheduling can be obtained from state departments of education, and from state and national education associations.[2]

Salary schedules are important not only for teachers but also for the nonteaching personnel, and for much the same reasons. Orderly procedures rather than haphazard individual bargaining will help to obtain better employees and keep them growing on the job. The schedule for nonteaching personnel cannot be based on preparation in quite the same manner as that for the professional staff, but an equitable schedule can and should be developed. In connection with the development or revision of such a schedule, job analysis or job evaluation, already referred to in a preceding paragraph, is especially helpful.

JOB EVALUATION AND SALARY SCHEDULING

A careful job analysis or job evaluation helps the board of education to determine the number and kinds of positions that it will maintain and is useful in supervising the work of employees.

[2] Inquiries to the National Education Association on specific problems in salary scheduling may be addressed to: Research Division, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

The emphasis here is on job evaluation as a basis of salary scheduling and wage rates. The larger the school system, the more imperative it is to rely on such surveys of personnel duties.

City-school systems usually have several broad classes of employees (such as, administrators, supervisors, classroom teachers, nurses, custodians) whose work is so different that separate salary schedules are justified. A systematic method of determining wage rates and salaries is an essential of good administration. Hence an adequate job analysis may offer an accurate and defensible basis for establishing equitable wage rates.

Among the essential steps in job evaluation are these:

1. Prepare a detailed description of each job, accompanied by a specification of personal qualifications needed.

2. Make a factor comparison of jobs, which takes into account: mental requirements, skill requirements, physical requirements, responsibility, and working conditions. In comparing the work of a stenographer and a watchman, for example, factor comparison will show that the stenographer requires more skill and more mental ability than the watchman, but that the physical requirements of the job are lower. There still remains the problem of how to balance each of the five factors, one against the other, but this is an easier process than to try to estimate which of two jobs is worth more without any detailed comparison of factors.

3. Select a certain number of key jobs which have already been clearly defined as to duties, in which the wage rates are not subject to controversy, which are not seriously underpaid or overpaid, and which vary in salary from the lowest to nearly the highest. Tabulate these key jobs and the average monthly salary paid for them.

4. From the descriptions of the duties performed, based on information received from the employees themselves and from supervisors, rank the jobs from lowest to highest, taking into account each of the five factors named in item 2.

5. Divide the salary as given for each key job into five parts, assigning one part to each of the five factors in accordance with its estimated importance. (These estimates should be the result of ranking by several persons, for example, four or five job analysts and the members of a representative rating committee, all working under the direction of a chief job analyst.)

6. Compare the results of step 5 and step 4 and eliminate any discrepancies. This gives a yardstick, or rating scale, in points for each of the five factors, and a composite point rating for each key job.

7. Compare all other jobs with the selected key jobs, placing the new ones in correct order of rank by comparing them with the appropriate key jobs and

using the rating scale for each factor. In each case the composite value of all the factors gives the total point value for each job.

8. Finally, submit the results to the various departments or employee groups for criticism and approval.

9. Revise the analyses in the light of criticisms.[3]

The accuracy obtained in job evaluation is determined largely by the amount of detailed information that is available. The more extensive and the more accurate the basic information is, the more satisfactory the final results are likely to be. In this respect the factor-comparison method outlined is superior to the simpler methods sometimes used. When making a job evaluation, the following principles should be kept in mind:

The work of evaluating jobs should be purely impersonal. The value should be established in terms of the requirements of the job and not in terms of any worker as an individual.

Job evaluation is more successfully accomplished if the workers in the organization are familiar with the methods employed and understand how the results were obtained.

It is usually desirable and profitable for employees to participate in the deliberations which attend the job evaluation study.[3]

In step one of the job analysis, it is suggested that each employee be asked to write a description of his work, listing all the duties he performs. This statement is then studied by his supervisor, who discusses it with the employee and adds his own observations about the job. A committee then makes a composite of the individual descriptions covering the same position and refers this back to each employee concerned. In this manner an objective job description is eventually developed on which all are substantially agreed. A typical scoring sheet for job evaluation appears on pages 120-21.

School districts with too few employees to justify a detailed job evaluation of the kind here described can get considerable help in classifying and evaluating the positions which they do maintain by careful study of the results reported from the larger city-school systems.

[3] Benge, Eugene J.; Burk, Samuel L. H.; and Hay, Edward N. *Manual of Job Evaluation*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941. 198 p. ¶ Stigers, Marquis F., and Reed, E. G. *The Theory and Practice of Job Rating*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1944. 168 p. ¶ See also the various Studies in Personnel Policy, National Industrial Conference Board, 247 Park Avenue, New York, N. Y.

REASONABLE WORK LOADS

Two principal sources of guidance are available to the board of education that attempts to find out what constitutes an optimum and reasonable work load for its employees. One source is the special job analysis, or job evaluation, just described. The other is the more or less definite standards agreed upon by accrediting agencies, reliable professional organizations, and recognized authorities in school administration. Local conditions may sometimes justify variation from such suggested standards. However, boards of education should know the standards that are generally approved.

TYPICAL SCORING SHEET IN DETERMINING ELEMENTS OF A JOB

MENTAL REQUIREMENTS	Education	Grade school High school Trade training College
	Experience	Long Medium Short
	Cultural background	High Medium Low
	Native intelligence	High Medium Low
	Articulation	Good Fair Unimportant
	Expression	Good Fair Unimportant
SKILL REQUIREMENTS	Highly skilled Semiskilled Unskilled	

In the matter of teacher load many school board members think of the problem almost entirely in terms of the ratio of pupils to teachers. The pupil-teacher ratio is a practical unit of measure, but only if back of the measure sufficient account has been taken of the many factors that enter into teaching load. The number of pupils in a teacher's class is only one of many factors which must be considered, such as number of teaching periods per week, number of separate preparations required each day, committee assignments, extracurriculum duties, records of reports, conferences with pupils and with parents, and professional activities after school hours.

- PHYSICAL REQUIREMENTS
  - Rigorous work, such as hard sustained labor
  - Medium: necessity to climb—intermittent hard labor
  - Light labor
  - Active—foreman type work
  - Sedentary office type
- RESPONSIBILITY
  - For policy determination
  - For organizing and planning
  - For administering policies
  - For direction of workers
  - For guarding against legal error
  - For errors which may cause monetary loss
  - For decisions which may produce economies
  - For care and protection of valuable property
  - For incurring public goodwill
  - For promoting safety
- WORKING CONDITIONS
  - Security
    - Continuity of employment
    - Retirement benefits
    - Workmen's compensation
    - Sick-leave
  - Work outside under severe weather extremes
  - Work in wet or damp places
  - Work in dangerous places
  - Work in cramped quarters
  - Work in dirty places
  - Work in dusty or gaseous air
  - Work under cover
  - Other benefits
    - Vacation on pay
    - Holidays on pay

As a general guide in staff requirements, the following consensus of practice and expert opinion should be helpful when interpreted against a background of adequate information about local working conditions and requirements:

Principals and other administrative officers—1 to 12 teachers

Classroom teachers—1 teacher to 25 pupils (typical classes)

Counselors—1 to 200 high-school pupils

Librarians—1 to 500 pupils

Clerks—1 to 500 pupils
(No school of 12 teachers or more should be without a full-time clerk. A clerk can divide her time between 2 or more small schools.)

Nurses—1 to 1500 elementary pupils
1 to 2000 high-school pupils

Custodians—1 full-time custodian for approximately 16,000 square feet of floor area.[4]

The board of education, particularly in a large city-school system, will sometimes wish to go beyond general standards to an independent analysis and job evaluation for each employee. In such cases, working thru its personnel department and perhaps with the help of special surveyors or job analysts, the board can obtain detailed and objective job descriptions for all types of school positions. Here the emphasis in interpretation will be not so much upon the *qualifications* for the job, as when the purpose is salary scheduling, as upon the *duties performed* and the time and energy required in doing them.

As an illustration of the use of job analysis in establishing reasonable working loads, the following standards which one community developed for its custodial force may be cited.

All the major types of custodial work were translated into "room equivalent," this being the amount of work which an average janitorial employee can do in half an hour. Table 1 shows the room equivalents established in this way. A wide spread in work assignments was revealed, ranging from six to twenty-three room equivalents per employee. The schedule was then readjusted using fourteen room equivalents as the standard for a reasonable daily assignment.

[4] National Education Association. *Proposals for Public Education in Postwar America.* Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1944. p. 17-18, 21.

TABLE 1.—ROOM EQUIVALENTS

Routine daily work	Area in square feet	Room equivalent
1	2	3
Classrooms:[a]		
Sweeping and dusting	800	1.00
	1,000	1.25
	1,200	1.50
	1,400	1.75
Toilet rooms:		
Mopping floors	400	1.00
Cleaning fixtures	17	1.00
Gymnasiums, playrooms:		
Sweeping and dusting	2,400	1.00
Locker rooms:		
Sweeping and dusting	1,600	1.00
Shower rooms:		
Mopping or hosing	1,200	1.00
Auditoriums:		
Wood floors	1,200	1.00
Linoleum or mastic tile	1,800	1.00
Corridors:		
Wood floors	1,800	1.00
Linoleum floors	2,400	1.00
Terrazzo	3,200	1.00
Cafeterias:		
Sweeping and dusting	800	1.00
Mopping	400	1.00
Shops:		
Sweeping and dusting	1,200	1.00
Glass area:[b]		
Small lights	50	1.00
Glass area:[b]		
Large single lights	70	1.00
Lawn and paved areas	15,000	1.00

Source: Carson, Thomas E., Jr. "Is Your Janitor Work Load Fair?" *Nation's Schools* 34: 60; September 1944.

[a] Including kindergarten, teachers' rooms, offices.

[b] To get the daily work load for cleaning glass, divide the entire glass area by the proper coefficient and divide the quotient by 24, the average number of working days per month.

The room equivalents presented in Table 1 may not be applicable in many school districts without adaptation to local needs. Real differences affect custodial work such as the frequency with which various tasks must be repeated, climatic conditions, amount of atmospheric dirt, the age and type of the school building, and the thoughtfulness and cooperation of those who use the building. Some of these factors may vary considerably even within the same school system. But whether or not the standards suggested in Table 1 are appropriate in a given school district, the methods by which they were established can be followed anywhere.

SECURITY IN EMPLOYMENT

Many boards elect their teachers on an annual basis, often in compliance with a mandatory state law. Where this is true the teachers each year are subject to a period of low morale, uncertain whether or not they will be reelected. Sometimes these teachers, regardless of professional fitness, must gather support from patrons of the school and other community agencies to bring sufficient pressure on the board to obtain reelection. This period of uncertainty is an intolerable one for those who have spent time and money to secure a professional education. It is a situation that many school boards are anxious to eliminate.

The modern school board member thinks of tenure as a means of safeguarding satisfactory and competent teachers, as a guarantee of security from unjust dismissal for personal, political, religious, racial, or any other than educational reasons. By guaranteeing the security of teachers he hopes that he will be encouraging higher standards of professional growth, for with tenure goes the obligation upon the teacher and the entire profession to maintain and improve professional status. The general purposes of tenure legislation, as outlined by the NEA Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom, would be heartily endorsed by most school board members:

1. To maintain and improve the educational opportunities of children and youth in every community of the United States.
2. To enrich community life by giving permanency and continuity to the service of the teacher.
3. To encourage boards of education to place the welfare of children above the selfish interests of those political or economic groups which continually seek to dominate the schools.

4. To guarantee employment conditions, providing a sense of security which will encourage teachers to attain the highest standards of professional competence.
5. To encourage the most promising young men and women to prepare for teaching as a life work, not as a steppingstone.
6. To set up definite, orderly procedures by which incompetent, unsatisfactory teachers may be dismissed.
7. To protect competent, satisfactory teachers from unjust dismissal.
8. To protect teachers in the exercise of their rights and duties as American citizens.
9. To protect teachers in preparing children and youth for loyal, effective participation in a democratically controlled society of free men cooperating for the common welfare.
10. To build in the teacher that confidence and freedom which come with a sense of stability and security as a citizen in a free republic.[5]

Whatever resentment and opposition to statutory tenure still are harbored by the average board member arise from the fact that one of his time-honored prerogatives has been circumscribed. The member often forgets that the board's power of appointment is derived from the state and can be rightfully altered by the state; that the state can add, remove, or alter restrictions and regulations on the power of the local board.

A good tenure law should provide for dismissal for proper causes and should outline quite specifically the procedure for terminating employment. A good tenure law also provides for a probationary period during which the teacher must demonstrate his competency. However, the probationary period should not be used as a means of evading the tenure law, by releasing new teachers just before the end of the probationary period so that none can acquire tenure.

Tenure is not intended to give an ineffective teacher a lifetime job, and the law should not be so drawn. The provisions of a tenure law are interpreted and implemented thru either the courts or the state department of education. Neither would willingly saddle the schools with inefficiency. In dismissal proceedings the board which has complied with the law and acted in accordance with reasonable rules and regulations usually is upheld. By adhering to prescribed procedures the board will be able to stand before the court without prejudice and defend its right to dismiss an inefficient employee.[6] Tenure legislation also tends to encourage a

[5] National Education Association, Committee on Tenure. *Tenure Legislation—How To Get It; How To Keep It.* Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1944. p. 7.
[6] National Education Association, Committee on Tenure. *Essentials of a Proper Schoolboard Hearing.* Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1945. 23 p.

school board to make a more careful initial selection of its teachers—to employ only those who meet clearly defined standards of preliminary preparation. Finally, it protects a board against outside pressure groups which have unjustly attacked the good teacher, and so safeguards the teacher from dismissal for personal, political, religious, or other unjust reasons.

The services of the inefficient or unfit employee should be terminated in conformity with legal requirements and according to recognized procedures of justice and fair play. In the absence of state law the rules of the board should provide (a) that charges be stated in writing and include a record of criticism and aid offered; (b) a hearing before the entire board, private or public, as the teacher may request; (c) benefit of counsel and witnesses; (d) safeguarding of salary rights during suspension; and (e) the right of appeal as provided in the law, to either the state department of education, the courts, or other appeal agency. If the board's cases are based on well-established, clearly formulated rules and regulations, its decisions seldom will seem to the appeal agency to be ill-considered and capricious.

Fifteen states (also Hawaii and Puerto Rico) have statewide tenure or continuing contract laws. In thirteen other states there is local tenure in some communities thru state law. In still other states tenure has been attained thru local rules of boards of education. High tribute should be paid to the many school boards who give teachers full advantage of tenure, in spite of the absence of tenure laws, and whose employees are virtually as secure as they would be with formal state tenure laws. Few will deny that better efficiency comes as a result of reasonable security. A secure individual is free to use his initiative in job performance.

PROVISIONS FOR RETIREMENT

In every school district in which satisfactory working conditions are maintained and where employees are continued in service with reasonable security in their positions, some members of the staff grow old in service and some develop handicaps, of one form or another, which either impair their efficiency or make it impossible for them to continue in active service. Boards of education cannot ignore these facts. Nor is the problem solved by refusing to make any provision for the retirement of aged and disabled employees.

To do so often leads to cruel injustice, an unwarranted increase in public charity, or the retention of employees beyond the time they should retire.

Several pertinent questions merit the careful consideration of every school board. First, is there already a state (or local) retirement system for teachers? If so, is membership in the retirement system open to members of the nonteaching staff? Is there a retirement system for state and local public employees to which the nonteaching employees can belong? If any retirement plan is already available to employees in the district, how satisfactory is it? Can a retired person really live on the benefits he receives? Then, depending on the answers to these questions, board policy can move in the appropriate direction: (a) to join with other school districts in the state in developing or improving the state teachers retirement system, the retirement system for nonteaching employees, or both; or (b) to explore the needs, financial support, and legality of setting up a local retirement system. In general, the larger and broader the base, the more successful the retirement system will be. For this reason statewide systems are usually preferred to local plans.

All states with the exception of one now have laws providing statewide teacher retirement plans and more than fifty cities have local systems. Many of these retirement plans are joint contributory; that is, both the state (or city) and the members of the retirement system contribute to them. The three chief exceptions among the statewide systems are Delaware, New Mexico, and Rhode Island, which have plans that are not joint-contributory systems.*

It might seem at first glance that the problem of retirement already has been virtually solved, since nearly all of the states and more than fifty city-school systems have already set up retirement plans for their employees. As a matter of fact, however, much remains to be done. Many of the plans, both state and local, pay to the retired employee benefits too small for their mere subsistence needs. Some of the plans, which are not entirely financially

* For details on legislative provisions, see: National Education Association, Research Division and National Council on Teacher Retirement, *Summary Analysis of Retirement Provisions for Teachers and Other School Employees*, Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1956. 61 p. For details on financial and membership statistics, consult: National Education Association, Research Division, "Statistics of State and Local Teacher Retirement Systems, 1955-56," *Research Bulletin* 35: 27-55, April 1957.

sound, need more generous support or some modification in the basic legislation on which they rest. The mere existence of a statewide retirement system is no evidence that any school board can properly relax and forget this whole vital area of personnel management. On the contrary, each school board should examine the way in which the retirement plan is operating and, working cooperatively with other local and state authorities, should seek to correct any inequities that exist. These inequalities are made more acute by the load of income taxation and fluctuations in the cost of living. Also the point should be reemphasized, perhaps, that relatively few states or local school systems have developed satisfactory retirement plans for their nonteaching school employees.

The school board member need not become an actuary or an expert on the details of sound retirement legislation. His chief responsibility is the more basic problem of determining needs and helping to decide that these needs can and must be met. Once this decision has been reached, expert advice must be obtained on actuarial and legislative details.[8] Under the guidance of the superintendent and cooperating with one or more employee committees, the board can work out the details of an appropriate action program. Much valuable information and help can be obtained from the National Council on Teacher Retirement.[9]

Many board members may think that school employees should be included under the federal social security law. At present all public employees—local and state—are excluded from the old-age insurance program. The pros and cons of this question could be discussed at great length and have been discussed vigorously for nearly five years. The present situation is that, when Congress again considers extensive amendments to the Social Security Act, it is likely that a permissive provision will be included whereby school districts without any kind of retirement plan will be able to contract for the federal benefits. Since the federal plan is less generous than most of the better state retirement systems, and since the date of Congressional action is at this time (late 1945) still uncertain, it is advisable for school boards to continue to

[8] For suggestions on procedure, see: National Education Association, National Council on Teacher Retirement. *How To Establish a Sound Teachers' Retirement System*. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1943. 18 p.

[9] For the recent publications of the National Council on Teacher Retirement, inquiries should be addressed to: Research Division, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

establish and to improve local and state retirement provisions. Even if some satisfactory federal development eventually should come, it is likely to require several years of discussion, decision, and adjustment. These will be precious years for present school employees, a period which should not be neglected by boards of education.

In spite of any federal program that is ultimately developed, moreover, it is generally believed among school employees that it is best to work for statewide retirement plans which (a) are of the joint-contributory type, regular contributions from the members and from the state; (b) are compulsory for new employees, optional for those in service when the plan is adopted; (c) assure benefit payments large enough for annuitants to live in reasonable comfort; (d) provide for periodic actuarial investigations and adjustments to keep the plans financially sound; and (e) are administered by democratically chosen boards of control, representing both the employees and the public.

Such plans protect the schools against the inefficiency which would otherwise result from disability and old age. Moreover, the public funds invested in a retirement plan usually will be much smaller than the sums that would have to be paid out if there were no retirement system, in the form of unearned salaries for employees who should have been retired. The conclusion is obvious, in terms of mere dollars and cents. A good retirement system, furthermore, helps to retain the most capable employees and to remove, for them, the haunting fear of a destitute old age. It adds to the attractiveness of school employment, as compared with other occupations, improves staff morale, and encourages self-improvement as a means of promotion in not just a "job" but a lifetime career.

LEAVES OF ABSENCE

Another important area in personnel management is that having to do with leaves of absence. School boards are concerned with three types of leave: sick-leave, maternity leave, and sabbatical leave.

Policies in regard to leaves of absence due to illness vary considerably, from no compensation per day absent to full pay for several days of illness absence per year, with perhaps a provision

that unused leave will cumulate from year to year. Cumulative leave is especially helpful in cases where extended illness would create serious hardship. Each school board must determine the amount of sick-leave that is feasible in its district. A generous policy usually pays good dividends not only in employee satisfactions but also in the form of health protection for children. When sick-leave is adequate teachers with colds or initial symptoms of illness no longer feel that they *must* keep going in order to avoid losses in salary.

In school systems where married women are employed school boards must face the problem of whether or not to grant maternity leaves of absence. The alternative often is equivalent to banning from the profession a capable teacher who has devoted many years to preparation for her work. The rules of the board should make clear the status of the married woman teacher in the event of pregnancy. The rules can be reasonable without violating the rights of the individual or impairing the interests of the schools and the children.

Sabbatical leaves of absence, often granted with part pay and in rare instances with full salary, can be used to promote professional growth, especially in larger school systems. Sabbatical leaves usually are granted for extended professional study, travel, research, general cultural pursuits, or needed rest and recuperation. The number and frequency of such leaves should depend not only on local financial resources but also on the professional needs of the staff. There is greater reason for them, generally speaking, in large city systems, where the average age of teachers is higher and their tenure longer than in smaller school systems, Small schools cannot afford, however, to ignore the possibilities for professional growth that may lie in this direction.

Closely related to sabbatical leaves, in fact a common basis for granting them, are arrangements for the exchange of teachers. These have proved helpful both when the exchange has involved teachers within the United States and when it has been an exchange of teachers between different nations.

PROMOTION, ASSIGNMENT, AND TRANSFER

Except to establish general policies and procedures, it is the function of the superintendent to make assignments and transfers

and to nominate employees for promotion. The board is responsible for general policies pertaining to assignments and transfers and for fixing the qualifications necessary for promotion. It is generally regarded as sound policy to encourage the promotion to executive positions, either principalships or other administrative positions, of teachers who have given meritorious service and have made professional progress in administrative theory. Before actual promotion they can often be given the chairmanship of important committees as a means of testing their ability.

The policy of some boards is to promote only within the system; other boards see the advantage of bringing in a certain proportion of the administrative staff from the outside, in order to obtain a new, fresh point of view and so to avoid the evils of inbreeding. When an administrative vacancy is to be filled, the professional achievements and successful work of local employees should certainly be carefully evaluated in comparison with the claims of outside applicants. The requirements of the job rather than the place of residence should be the first and basic consideration.

Objective standards for promotion can be set up by the superintendent and school board working in cooperation. Teachers then do not rely for promotion on the personal influence of a friendly board member or on the good graces of the superintendent. Success in applying objective standards for promotion depends largely upon the leadership qualities of the superintendent, but the board's attitude and its official policies are also important. Some cities have found it advantageous to use a classified list of persons within the school system who are eligible for promotions. Such lists usually are administered by the personnel office and are used as the basis for the superintendent's recommendations.

The policies of a school system with respect to promotions cannot be adopted in a vacuum. The size of the district and the available supply of qualified applicants are factors that must be recognized. Policies which a board prefers and which it can maintain when there is a teacher surplus may have to be modified during a period of teacher shortage.

ACADEMIC FREEDOM AND CIVIL LIBERTIES

Periodically in American life there arises enough pressure from special interest groups to threaten the academic freedom of teachers.

Most experienced board members are familiar with the uninformed adult who repeats half truths as reported by a child and condemns some teacher's work on the basis of them. Such an adult may be dangerous to academic freedom. To question a teacher's loyalty, patriotism, or respect for the Constitution on some such fragile basis is a form of witch-hunting. It is the board's duty to stand by its employees and protect them from these unwarranted pressures.

The fact that school board members are themselves affiliated with pressure groups does not give them the right to force their religious, social, political, or economic opinions upon the teacher, employees, or children. The teacher should be responsible to the superintendent, rather than to the board, for his methods and materials of instruction. If the board questions the propriety of classroom practices, it should, by regular board action, refer the matter to the superintendent for study, and later report.

Whether the teacher lives within or outside the political boundary of the school district, he is part of the sociological community. He pays rent or owns a home; he buys goods and services in the region; and he makes his contribution to strengthening community life, thru church activities, hobby groups, welfare work, discussion groups, social clubs, or fine arts groups. These are voluntary activities and are not proper subjects for either formal board rules or control thru contract agreements.

Conduct unbecoming to a teacher is to some extent variable. To eliminate it is not the exclusive function of the school board. This is one area for school administration and professional ethics. When a teacher comes into a conservative community from a more liberal one, he may do certain things which the new community does not approve. The answer is not thru rigid school board regulations. The wise superintendent can thru guidance help most teachers individually to correct the situation, or certain matters can be given over to the local professional association.

This problem is particularly acute with new teachers coming into small communities. These are the districts that usually hire inexperienced teachers direct from college campuses, where life has been under more liberal social concepts. Even those who grew up in small towns, having lived in college for awhile, come

back to the small community and resent its lack of social opportunity and the conservatism of its social patterns. In small communities, which have not changed much in the last fifty years, new teachers often must make difficult adjustments, yet a teacher who does not become adjusted to the social standards of the community will never become a successful instructor in that locality. Teachers, therefore, should be encouraged to enter into the social and religious life of the community wherever employed. Participation is one factor in their acceptance as satisfactory individuals.

Many teachers are attracted by other part-time jobs because of their inadequate salaries and because of the failure of teaching to provide sufficient occupational and personal satisfaction. The majority of such part-time jobs are of the run-of-the-mill variety that do not increase the prestige of the teacher. While occasionally the job may involve some of the skills also used in teaching, often they draw on the extra reserve energy needed for planning classroom work. Employees often feel that the matter of part-time employment is not a proper concern of their employers, but this is not wholly true. It may become their concern when it affects the quality of the classroom work. If it becomes necessary, however, for a board to restrict nonschool employment, its regulations should interfere as little as possible with the individual rights and personal lives of its employees and should be as free as possible from discrimination among employees. When teachers like their jobs and receive adequate financial and personal returns for their work, a minimum of restrictive regulations will be necessary.

PERIODIC HEALTH EXAMINATIONS

The school board's interest in the employee's health should continue thruout his period of employment because of the clear relationship that exists between health and efficiency. Sometimes this interest ends with the entrance health examination and with the board's efforts to provide healthful working conditions. Other boards require periodical health examinations as a prerequisite to continuing employment and perhaps a health check up at the end of each extended leave of absence. Opinions differ as to the policies which should be adopted with respect to periodic health examinations. Teachers have been reluctant to endorse them because, on occasion, unscrupulous boards have used them as a

means of dismissing competent employees for personal reasons. If properly safeguarded against abuse, school employees usually will cooperate heartily in methods of health protection for themselves and their pupils.

MISCELLANEOUS WELFARE MEASURES

Many welfare activities, altho not sponsored by the board, should receive board approval and encouragement. Group hospitalization, group insurance, and credit unions help materially in building morale and improving staff efficiency. Also, as teaching becomes a more stable profession and the turnover of teachers is reduced, the school board must concern itself with retaining the vitalized teaching so characteristic of the young teacher. If the teacher is given the opportunity to use this dynamic experience derived from classroom work, his enthusiasm grows and he becomes a more skilful teacher. Thru participation in the planning of the curriculum and further participation in policy-making the teacher realizes that he has a stake in the system. Such participation builds, secures, and holds strong teachers.

IN-SERVICE GROWTH

Some form of in-service training always has been encouraged, in former years by requirements such as to read two books from a given list each year or to attend professional institutes. Attendance at summer school is required periodically in some states, or a financial incentive is offered for the successful completion of summer courses and for work in extension classes. A form of in-service training of the less formal type is the visiting of other schools, perhaps for two days a semester within the system or visiting schools for a longer period in other sections of the country.

In recent years the workshop method has been used successfully as an in-service training procedure, bringing new materials to the attention of teachers and giving them the opportunity for active participation in the development and appraisal of new technics. Workshops often are planned in such a way that the teachers participate as if they were pupils in a classroom, the leader acting as teacher. Those desiring help with special phases of their own work often can attend a workshop concerned with that problem. In other instances teachers find it helpful to join a workshop outside

TEACHERS—*form the professional backbone of the school system. Upon the quality of daily instruction depends the success of the school. Organization and administration exist solely to facilitate the work of teachers.*

Photograph by
Public Schools of Chattanooga, Tennessee

their particular field, for the inspiration and interest to be found in a new endeavor. Some examples of the fields covered in workshops are: remedial reading, choral speaking, occupational work, clay modeling, finger painting, music, physical education, science, arithmetic, and the organization of a unit of work. Workshops have been particularly helpful during the war period to returning teachers and substitute teachers who have wanted to do good work but have been in need of help with current methods and courses of study. If a school board believes in the workshop method, it can make provision for this type of in-service training for both its professional and its nonprofessional employees. The procedure also has been used successfully by many school boards for their own enlightenment.

In each school system there should be a compilation of the training opportunities available to school employees, the courses offered, the forums, institutes, lecture series, seminars, workshops, demonstrations, and so on. There should also be a tabulation of the professional interests and needs of the staff as a basis for the introduction of new in-service projects. The board itself will not be directly concerned with such administrative details, of course. But it must authorize certain funds and encourage adjustment of work schedules and in-service programs.

Relation of the School Board to Employee Organizations

For nearly a century boards of education have been familiar with professional organizations of teachers and have been sympathetic toward their objectives. They have also, for seventy-five years, profited by the membership of the administrators in their own organization. Within the last decade teachers and other employees have become eligible for membership in divisions of the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organizations. It is estimated that perhaps 5 percent of the teachers have joined union groups, while 95 percent of those who belong to any kind of employee organizations have retained their memberships in the older professional associations. A few belong to both.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

About the only contact which many board members have with professional teachers associations occurs either at the time of a

hearing on behalf of an aggrieved member of the association or when state and national organizations press for legislation, the value of which the board member may question. Consequently, a negative attitude sometimes is built up. Well-informed board members know, on the other hand, that membership of school employees in professional organizations has tremendous value for the school district.

In a small school system the professional association is an important educational influence for the isolated employee. State and national literature brings new thought and new procedures to his attention and keeps before him the dreams and ideals that are so often lost in daily routine. Local organizations also may be of help to the board in recruiting new employees and in helping them to learn the rules and customs of the district more quickly. Furthermore, professional organizations often help in solving difficult personnel problems. For all these reasons, and more, membership in local, state, and national professional associations should be encouraged. This policy helps to strengthen established codes of professional ethics, to improve the quality of administration, and in general to bring about more effective work.

The purposes of the National Education Association, the largest of the professional educational organizations, are stated in its Charter as follows: "To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching and to promote the cause of education in the United States."

The National Education Association, with its 330,000 members, now enrols about one-third of the classroom teachers and school administrators. Organized in 1857 it has been a steadily growing influence in both the development of professional standards among teachers and the promotion of sound educational legislation. School board members can obtain a general view of the program by reading the *NEA Handbook*. The publications of the NEA Research Division may often be helpful in the solution of personnel and other problems. Associate membership in the Association is available to school board members.

Of special interest to board members is the work of the American Association of School Administrators—the national professional association of superintendents of schools. This organization has a

long history of achievement. The superintendent of schools in every district will benefit from membership. His board should make it possible for him to attend the annual convention and to participate in the Association's activities. School board members can be associate members (without vote) by paying the annual fee.

Teachers also belong to local and state education associations affiliated with the National Education Association. The programs of all of these groups make for higher professional standards and morale. There are national groups also organized in terms of special interests, such as the principalship, social studies, science, research, health, and the school secretaries. School employees should be free to belong to any professional groups that they may wish to join.

UNIONIZATION OF SCHOOL PERSONNEL

From time to time in a few places school personnel—teachers or custodians—may decide to join unions and to bargain collectively with the board regarding salaries, hours, and other working conditions. If such an occasion should arise, the school board's attitude and methods of operation become especially important. Because union bargaining methods are usually built on militant principles, many board members have an aversion to unions. It is easy for tension and fear to lead to so much conflict and antagonism that the morale of the whole school organization is seriously damaged. On the other hand, the board should make every effort to prevent such results by showing attitudes of fairness, interest in the welfare of employees, and willingness to discuss any problems of the district which concern or appear to concern the employees.

There are two general types of unions that are of most interest to school boards: (a) teachers unions, and (b) unions of janitors and other custodial employees. Miscellaneous craft unions (such as carpenters, plumbers, electricians, painters, motion-picture operators, and musicians) may occasionally have contacts with the schools, but ordinarily the schools are a minor source of employment to these groups.

The American Federation of Teachers (AFL) has chartered about eight hundred locals, but the number now active is not known. Its total membership, however, does not exceed 5 percent of the teachers in the United States. The CIO accepts teachers

thru a division of the State, County and Municipal Workers of America. Custodial employees may be organized in either the American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees (AFL) or State, County and Municipal Workers of America (CIO). The number of members among nonprofessional school employees except in large cities is not known but is believed on a countrywide basis to be relatively small.

Labor unions in general have been strong supporters of public education for a century or more. Unions have recommended the expanding and improvement of education, more emphasis on teaching democracy, education for international harmony, equal pay for equal work, adequate salaries, academic freedom, permanent tenure, and pensions. Their programs, in general, are similar to those of professional education associations.

The unions with which school districts negotiate (whether of teachers or custodians) usually frown on strikes as a method of achieving their objectives. Given a fair attitude on both sides, such weapons should certainly be unnecessary, according to the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics:

> The constitution of the State, County and Municipal Workers of America (C.I.O.) states: "It shall not be the policy of this organization to engage in strikes as a means of achieving objectives." When a local union contemplates strike action, it must first advise the national officers of its intention and then "be guided by the advice and decisions of the national officers." The constitution of the American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees (A.F. of L.) states: "The methods of obtaining the objects of this federation shall be by petitioning, by creating and fostering sentiment favorable to proposed reforms, by cooperating with the State and local officials, by promoting legislation, and by other lawful means." [10]

Nevertheless strikes have sometimes occurred, to the detriment of the pupils. Because theirs is a public service, school employees should not strike.

Boards should recognize, however, that the right of industrial employees to strike is one of the most cherished rights of workers, won over the course of years at cost of great hardship and even loss of life. When public employees waive this method of securing their objectives, they expect in return to receive fair consideration of their interests.

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[10] U. S. Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Statistics. "Union Agreements with Municipalities." *Monthly Labor Review* 56: 1168; June 1943.

Because unions of school personnel usually realize the differences between a public body and a private corporation they often do not ask for a written contract but merely request that the board incorporate the results of negotiations in its minutes or in a set of rules and regulations. This is in the nature of a gentleman's agreement; with sincerity on both sides it is just as effective as a contract.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES IN DEALING WITH EMPLOYEES

The following principles are useful guides in dealing with employees:

1. Any employee should be free to join any lawful organization, whether a professional association, a labor union, or a civic, political, or fraternal group. Teachers, however, should remember that they occupy a position of prominence and influence in the community. While their civil liberties must not be circumscribed, they should exercise the responsibility that goes with leadership.

2. Employees should be free to discuss with the school administration any matters pertaining to employment, salaries, working conditions, or the improvement of the teaching or public relations of the schools. Employees may properly, if they desire, select some other person, group, or organization to represent them, if such selection is made freely without intimidation or coercion.

3. The right to work in a school system should be dependent upon preparation, ability, and effectiveness and should not be dependent upon membership or nonmembership in any organization, except so far as limitations of this right may be agreed upon by democratic processes and mutual consent of the school board and the personnel concerned.

4. As a general principle, school personnel are entitled to receive salaries and working conditions which are comparable to those which prevail for other employees in the community with similar work, preparation, responsibilities, hours, and working conditions.

5. In general, whatever points are agreed upon should be written out in some form because a few years later it may be difficult to remember exactly what was agreed and the personnel involved may have changed.

In a school system with good morale, the teachers say "we," not "they," because they do not think of board members as gods upon a distant throne. Rather they realize that board members, administrators, classroom teachers, nonprofessional employees, pupils, parents, and citizens generally, despite some conflicting interests, are all partners in an attempt to build a sound educational foundation for a democracy of 132,000,000 people of many races, creeds, and colors. School boards must be alert to those procedures that will cause people to work with zeal and to feel they are treated fairly and squarely.

Signposts for Service . . .

★ *Money feeds the school system, and an adequate supply guarantees against educational starvation.*

★ *Many school districts within states have such meager financial resources that the state must encourage consolidations and provide state aid distributed on the basis of need.*

★ *Only with the development of a nationwide awareness of America's responsibility for all children will it be possible thru federal aid to provide adequate educational opportunities for children in a number of the states.*

★ *State and federal aid need not convey the degree of centralization that destroys local initiative and responsibility for efficient schools.*

★ *Neither the matching basis nor the reward for effort should dominate state and federal apportionments on the basis of need, or the needy will become needier.*

★ *School accounting, budgeting, reporting, and purchasing are the works of the office machine. They should be modern, articulated, and lubricated by ample funds and trained staff so as to produce clear and accurate reports.*

★ *The audit should be thoro and complete, and the worker's honesty assured by bond.*

★ *School boards should not borrow unless the present benefits to children as pupils justify the future cost to them as taxpayers.*

★ *Effective school administration cannot be carried on in a poorly planned central office or in an ill-equipped school office.*

CHAPTER VI

Financial and Business Administration

BOARDS OF EDUCATION are inclined to devote a considerable amount of time, energy, and occasionally heat to discussions of the details of school business administration, and frequently much less to its broad underlying principles. Unless deftly guided, the discussion of the abstract, no matter how important, loses out to the concrete. Is learning by doing in the case of most board members a slow and costly process? Possibly the training period can be shortened. A preview of a few fundamentals of school business might indicate to the members that it is more in the public interest to determine an enlightened personnel policy than to select with infinite care the location of a bronze memorial plaque.

In the administration of business affairs, the board member should both understand and believe in the principle that proceedings by a public body tend to be good as they are of general application rather than specific; as they set up schedules, standards, procedures, and methods and avoid special actions in individual cases.

It is vital to the successful operation of a school system that its business affairs be neither slighted nor exaggerated in importance. Without financial support schools die; without adequate revenues and competent management schools cannot furnish the highest type of service. But education is not a matter of budgets bonds, and buildings.

The business functions of a school system are an integral part of its existence. They are not coordinate with the educational functions; neither are they subordinate. They are in the broad sense an educational function. If the number of dollars available determines the size of the school library and the intensity of illumination directly affects reading ability, who can deny the immediate educational significance of the so-called business functions? There are few, if any, school business services which are unrelated to the learning process.

In some states the law perpetuates the fallacy that for maximum efficiency a business manager must be given authority coordinate with, or even superior to, that exercised by the superintendent

of schools. These statutes were enacted on the premise that any superintendent of schools is per se ignorant of business, a condition that no longer exists. If law in a given state does not direct the appointment, powers, and duties of the business executive, then the board is free to select a person trained as an educator, who has a primary interest in business and buildings. He should become one of the superintendent's assistants to carry on the educational functions with the business aspects.

The conduct of business affairs may be circumscribed by a myriad of specific legal restrictions in a state school law or code, as in Ohio. Or, as in Massachusetts, a school committee may act almost as freely as if operating a private business, respecting only the tenets of common honesty, good faith, and accepted practice.

When state law gives comparative freedom, a board of education has a choice between two general courses of action. If it wishes to adopt better procedures to further the physical, social, and mental development of pupils, it may seek specific legal sanction for each act or it may courageously proceed to do what it believes to be right unless stopped by statute. The latter course will result in greater progress but is to be recommended only if all board actions are open and in the public interest.

Financial Support

Altho the state is ultimately responsible for public education, in actual practice the local resident, except in a few instances, foots the largest part of the school bill in direct taxes. For years 90 percent of the funds raised for public schools in the United States came from forms of the general property tax.[1] The percentage has varied greatly between the states and within the same state. The burden of local taxation for education so raised is usually heavy and frequently unfair and inequitable.

The second principal source of revenue is from the state. In the nineteenth century the income from "permanent" state funds, many originally created from federal land grants, was available for use in aid of the common schools. These "permanent" school funds were largely dissipated by state legislatures. Even when well managed thru their entire existence they were by 1920 a minor source

[1] Cyr, Frank W.; Burke, Arvid J.; and Mort, Paul R. *Paying for Our Public Schools.* Scranton, Pa.: International Textbook Co., 1938. p. 43.

of school income, varying from seven-tenths of a cent a year per pupil enrolled in South Carolina to $14.49 in North Dakota.[2]

Income from permanent or invested state funds has in general ceased to be a significant factor in the state's share in the support of the public schools. In the school year 1933-34 such income represented about 6¼ percent of all state revenue devoted to public education. By 1939-40 it had dropped to 4 percent, but in six states there was no revenue from "permanent" school funds, while in Oregon such revenue constituted 100 percent of the state school fund. State support from all sources declined from 24 percent in 1890 to less than 16 percent in 1926.[3] But the weaknesses of the general property tax and the development of an equalization program have apparently forced the reversal of this trend. By 1930 the state's share had risen to 16.9 percent (see Table 2), and continued to increase until 1938. In the early 1940's it remained for a time at slightly under 29.5 percent. It is probable that reports for 1944-45 and 1945-46, when available, will show additional rises in the proportion of school revenue from state sources.

TABLE 2.—PERCENT OF PUBLIC ELEMENTARY- AND SECONDARY-SCHOOL REVENUE[a] FROM FEDERAL, STATE, AND LOCAL GOVERNMENTS IN 1920, 1930, 1934, 1938, AND 1942

Unit of government	1920	1930	1934	1938	1942
1	2	3	4	5	6
Federal	0.3%	0.4%	1.2%	1.2%	1.3%
State	16.5	16.9	23.4	29.5	29.3
Local	83.2	82.7	75.4	69.3	69.4
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source: U. S. Office of Education, Department of the Interior. *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States*, 1918-20, 1928-30, 1932-34, 1936-38, 1940-42. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office.

[a] Revenue receipts only. State receipts from permanent funds and from school lands are included.

[2] Swift, Fletcher H. *Federal and State Policies in Public School Finance in the United States.* Boston: Ginn and Co., 1931. p. 69.

[3] Swift, Fletcher H., *op. cit.*, p. 90.

Between 1933-34 and 1939-40 twenty-nine states increased and seventeen decreased their proportionate contribution to the support of schools, but the increases were four times as large as the decreases.[4] By 1941-42 the state of Delaware met 90 percent of its total school expenditures, while Iowa met but 1.6 percent. Eight states by 1941-42 obtained 50 percent or more of their school revenues from state sources: Alabama, Arizona, Delaware, Georgia, Louisiana, New Mexico, North Carolina, and Washington.[5]

The trends are now definitely toward greater state participation in postwar school support; diversified state and local tax programs; less reliance upon the taxation of real property and increased utilization of sales, income, and corporation taxes; a general decline in the use of earmarked taxes; and an increase in appropriations from the general funds of the state.

The proper share of state support cannot be stated categorically, but it can be roughly defined as furnishing a foundation program which is in theory the share necessary to bring the local school revenue to an amount sufficient to assure good schools and to assure more stable support in economic recessions. State support should not be so large as to destroy local interest and support.

The third source of financial support of public schools is the federal government, which has shown since 1785 an interest in helping to finance public education in the states. The Ordinance of 1785 provided that, as the land west of the original colonies was surveyed and later sold, it should be laid out in townships six miles square; that each of these should consist of thirty-six square-mile lots, of which the proceeds from the sale of lot No. 16 of each township should be reserved for the support of public schools. From the admission of Ohio to statehood in 1802 until 1939, the federal government gave 121,130 square miles of land for the support of common schools. Generally speaking, land grants increased as the incorporation of the states into the Union proceeded westward, California receiving two lots and Utah, Arizona, and New Mexico each receiving four lots.[6] Under the Morrill Act of

[4] National Education Association, Research Division. "State School Finance Systems." *Research Bulletin* 20: 151-95; November 1942. p. 154-55.

[5] U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency. *Statistical Summary of Education, 1941-42.* Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, 1944. p. 17-18.

[6] U. S. Department of the Interior, General Land Office. *School Lands.* Information Bulletin, 1939 Series, No. 1. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, 1939 11 p.

1862 Congress provided land and land scrip for the establishment of state colleges of agriculture and mechanical arts. In 1887 and again in 1890 Congress made appropriations to the land-grant state colleges; the first for agricultural experiment stations, the second for training in agriculture and mechanical arts. In 1941-42 the total of the two amounted to $12,000,000. The Smith-Lever Act of 1914 provided for education, in home economics and agriculture, of those not enrolled in college. The federal appropriations were matched by similar appropriations by the states.

In 1917 Congress passed the Smith-Hughes Act, which was the first direct federal appropriation for the support of public-school education. Again the appropriation called for matching expenditures by the states, this time for vocational education in public high schools. The George-Deen Act of 1936 increased the total vocational education appropriation from $7,000,000 to $21,483,000 and increased the number of courses approved for reimbursement.[7] As sources of local revenue for schools neither of these laws is substantial, but as educational stimulants they are effective.

From 1918 on, there have been federal appropriations for the reeducation of war veterans, the operation of depression-closed schools, educational programs in the Civilian Conservation Corps and National Youth Administration, vocational training for war production workers, nursery schools for the children of industrial workers, and finally the World War II Veterans' Bill of Rights. Except for the emergency aid for closed schools in the 1930's, none of these, it will be observed, financially assisted the program of the public schools, and one at least of the federal projects was definitely a competitor.[8]

DEFECTS IN PRESENT SCHOOL SUPPORT

There are today three great related weaknesses in the financing of public schools. Of these the first, too great reliance upon the general property tax, is a state problem. Relatively excessive and inequitable tax demands upon the local unit are also a state problem and, in the poorer states, a national one as well. The inability of half of our states adequately to support all of their schools is the third great problem in educational finance.

[7] National Education Association, Research Division. "Federal Aid for Education: A Review of Pertinent Facts." *Research Bulletin* 20: 119-47; September 1942. p. 121-22.

[8] The National Youth Administration.

Modern schools cannot, except in relatively wealthy communities with few children, be supported thru both good and bad times solely by the general property tax. It just cannot be done. Nevertheless, with bulldog persistence we still in many places try to pay for a too large portion of the cost of our schools from the proceeds of a tax whose sole virtue lies in its stability and productivity even in times of depression. Real property once fairly represented wealth; obviously it no longer does. A tax on it is regressive, bearing most heavily on the small owner. It does not take fully into account ability to pay nor, so far as the schools are concerned, yield benefits in proportion to the tax paid. Assessment methods are frequently haphazard, if not legally preferential, and collection enforcement is not always uniform. And finally, as America becomes increasingly migratory, real estate values are less and less stable. But limitation of the property tax, without the substitution of other sources of revenue, only results in technical bankruptcy or starved services.

The stability of the property tax fully justifies its retention, but the outcome of excessive dependence upon it is miserable schools or confiscatory taxation in poor districts, and good schools and undertaxation in wealthy ones. These results are wholly undemocratic, as they deny to our children an equal opportunity to secure a good education.

The size of taxing units, it should be pointed out, has much to do with the extreme variations in tax burdens. If, for example, there are from 5000 to 8000 school districts in a state, some with nonarable lands are bound to be poor and some with large railroad or manufacturing properties are resultingly rich. But if the number of tax units is drastically lowered, the deviations in wealth are also reduced.

In New York in 1938-39 there were one-teacher schools supported by less than $25,000 in real property and others by more than $625,000 with a fairly even distribution between these extremes. But in the same year the so-called "central" school districts provided support for each teaching unit of between $75,000 and $175,000, with relatively few outside these limits.[9]

[9] Burke, Arvid J., and others. *An Improved System of State School Finance for New York State.* Albany, N. Y.: New York State Teachers' Association, 1940. (Mimeo.) Tables 13 and 14, Supplement B.

EQUALIZATION OF OPPORTUNITY

During the last twenty years the endeavor in most states has been to equalize educational opportunities. This objective cannot be attained by subventions to match local expenditures, a method tried for many years. This so-called "reward of effort" scheme to bring up the poor district fails, just as the parent fails who promises a dull boy a dollar for every "A" on his report card. The slow boy does not have the brains to get the "A" and the poor district cannot earn the subventions because it does not have the dollars. The result of matching subventions is that relatively, as well as absolutely, good schools become even better because financially weak schools are largely unaffected.

Reward of effort having failed, we have turned to two general methods which are bringing up the level of education in the formerly poor districts. So far as it is possible to overcome local prejudices and local pride, school districts are being combined or, as in New York State, "centralized." This action broadens the tax base for the property tax and somewhat reduces inequalities. When, however, state aid on a so-called equalization basis is granted to those larger units, the difference between the best schools and the poorest schools in the state is drastically reduced. Equalization payments, as the name implies, are far more generous to poor districts than to rich ones.

In its simplest form the equalization plan is for the state to give to the districts so much for each pupil in attendance *less* a tax at a uniform rate upon the equalized value of real property in the district. One refinement is to grant more for secondary-school pupils than for elementary pupils. Another is to credit, tho at lower rates, attendance at kindergartens, evening schools, and summer schools. A safeguard provides that in order to be eligible for equalization aid a district must impose a general property tax at a prescribed moderate level.

HOW EQUALIZATION AID WORKS

Here is how: Two districts have 100 pupils each. One has a "true" value [10] of real property amounting to $300,000; and the other, $3,000,000. State aid is $75 a pupil less one mill on each

[10] The true or full value in the two districts is determined by dividing the assessed valuation by the percentage that current assessments are to fair market value. The work of determining true values is best done by a state agency.

dollar of true valuation. Under such a plan the poorer district receives $7500 less $300, or $7200; and the wealthier, $7500 less $3000, or $4500, the total state aid being $11,700. This is, of course, not an extreme example. Equalization can be increased by raising the millage rate of deduction, and the state can maintain the same total aid but give more to the poorer districts by raising both the aid per pupil and the deduction based on real property. In the preceding illustration, if state aid is raised to $91.50 a pupil and the rate of deduction to *two* mills, the poorer district will then receive $8550 and the richer one $3150, the total state aid remaining at $11,700.

To finance an equalization program a state should not impose real property taxes but have a broad tax base including income, inheritance, sales, beverage, tobacco, and, of course, gasoline taxes. These so-called indirect taxes do not take relatively as much from the poor communities as from the wealthy. The effect of imposing income and inheritance taxes and distributing the proceeds to the common schools on an equalization basis is to take from the taxpayer in proportion to his ability to pay and to furnish education in accordance with the need—a truly sound and democratic procedure.

The problem of offering at least reasonably good schools thruout the entire nation arises from the incontrovertible fact that certain states, no matter how well their schools are organized and how perfect their tax systems, do not have the resources to pay for even reasonably good schools. As Americans, the children are entitled to education commensurate with their abilities to profit. This means federal aid for the support of the common schools, at least in those states which have not the resources.

In 1940 the expenditure for the typical classroom in the United States was about $1600 a year. Yet there were classrooms costing less than $100 a year and others costing more than $6000. The former were in shacks and taught by nearly illiterate teachers, while the latter were in fire-resistant schools, perfectly appointed, and taught by a professional staff.[11] The typical or median expenditure for a classroom in New York is ten times that in Mississippi, yet Mississippi gives more for education in proportion to its wealth

[11] Norton, John K., and Lawler, Eugene S. *An Inventory of Public School Expenditures in the United States.* Report of the Cooperative Study of Public School Expenditures. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1944. 2 vols. (Mimeo.)

than New York. The widow's mite shows a good heart but does not build schools or pay teachers. In fact, "all but one of the ten states with the lowest expenditures are in the South." The problem of inadequately financed schools is not, however, confined to the South. Nearly every state has some very poor schools; in fact, some of the wealthiest states have them. In New York, the wealthiest, for example, in 1940 there were 486 classroom units supported by less than $1000 a year.[12]

Only recently has this support been raised to approximately $1400. It is clear that not only is federal aid on an equalization basis needed to bring up the standards in the poorer states, but in the wealthier ones there must be state support at a higher level, a somewhat greater degree of state compulsion, and a local willingness to sacrifice a measure of home rule, which may be lethargic and stubborn—all three of these, if all of the classrooms are to be worthy of the children who occupy them.

Basic Financial Functions

A school system is not necessarily good because it has acceptable business methods, but it cannot be at its best without them. Without sound general accounting, accurate cost accounting, careful auditing, intelligent budgeting, and intelligible financial reporting, the schools neither secure nor effectively use the maximum number of dollars available. Unless these basic business functions operate in an efficient and effective manner, the schools are not working at their potential ability to serve. Obviously, neither are they wholly effective unless, among others, the functions of operation, maintenance, and purchasing are marked by good organization and prudent, economical expenditure.

General accounting practice for the collection and allocation of tax revenues, state subventions, federal aid, gifts, and trusts, and for the creation and control of various funds is usually carefully safeguarded in state law. Likewise, the procedures to be followed in collecting taxes and in expending the proceeds, along with other revenues, are even more minutely controlled by law. The operation of these general accounts is a typical governmental procedure common to practically any governmental unit. Cost accounting, budget-

[12] Norton, John K., and Lawler, Eugene S., *op. cit.*, Vol. 1, p. 76.

ing, and reporting for schools are not typical. They are highly specialized. Despite the opinion of theorists in the field of government that school cost keeping, budgeting, and reporting should be done in such a manner that the resulting statistics may be compared with those from the public works and sanitation departments, the fact remains that school costs, budgets, and reports are unique in public accounting. The products of public education cannot be measured in gallons, tons, or square yards. Only in a few places are school figures comparable with statistics in municipal, town, or county government. They should be, however, fully comparable with the accounts, budgets, and reports of other school units having similar physical characteristics, such as size, wealth, and latitude.

Cost accounting, budgeting, and reporting are three aspects of the same general function. The three should use an identical nomenclature and system of accounts. They should cover the same time span. In detail they should be so arranged as to tell the financial story clearly and helpfully to the board, the executive, and the community. Unfortunately, in practice many local cost systems are not adapted to schools and, as a consequence, produce statistics that are inaccurate, obscure, and confusing, as well as being noncomparable with those of other schools.

The difficulty in these basic business functions is due to lack of uniformity in practice, which is only in small part accounted for by the requirements of local laws. For thirty years there has been a fairly well-accepted standard of school accounts. It has been modified from time to time and has now been brought up to date in Circular No. 204 of the United States Office of Education, which was prepared by the National Advisory Committee on School Records and Reports.[13] This publication should be a handbook in the office of every school system.

This standard system is a framework, a guide, and a bench mark. Individual conditions will suggest refinements, subsidiary accounts for locally important expenditures, and the development of a whole category of object classifications of costs, such as supplies, equipment, travel, and communications. All of these adaptations can be achieved without any loss of the values attained thru the use of standard accounts.

[13] Foster, Emery M., editor. *Financial Accounting for Public Schools.* Circular No. 204. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, 1943. 85 p. (Mimeo.)

No school executive or board of education can judge the costs of the local system in the absolute without an accurate system of cost accounting refined in direct proportion to the size of the community. Neither can the executive or the board intelligently judge the relative cost of the many functions within the system or validly check them against the costs of the same functions in like systems unless the accounts are both accurate and comparable. Only by the adoption of the national standard of cost accounting can the most effective internal and the most valuable external comparison of costs be attained.

In a privately financed educational institution, the ledger is "the heart of the accounting system." In a public-school system, where the main sources of revenue and principal assets are not tuition and endowment funds but tax collections and the taxing power of the supporting body, ledger accounts maintained for the preparation of a balance sheet are of relatively less significance.

Despite the presentation by public accountants of impressive "balance sheets" for school systems, capital accounts, save for purposes of insurance and record, are of minor importance. The one exception is the physical inventory. Carried to the extreme, a complete inventory of articles that cost more than $5 or last more than five years may well call for a catalog with ten times as many items as there are pupils. The cost of keeping up to date such an inventory and of depreciating the value of the individual items annually in large school systems is prohibitive. But this fact is not a valid reason why all schools should not exercise all possible control over their stores and movable equipment. The objectives in such inventories are control and conservation. These can be attained by a card or loose-leaf ledger inventory of only the twenty to twenty-five items of concentrated value which tend to disappear. As of today, there would be included adding and calculating machines, typewriters, reproducing machines, radios, floor polishers, vacuum cleaners, lawn mowers, vehicles, spray outfits, pianos, musical instruments, microscopes, balances, and cameras, but not pencils, stencils, and paste jars. Stock inventory would, of course, include all items.

THE BUDGET

The budget is the most important financial document of a school system. It is the master plan for administering the schools. In it

should be found a statement of all anticipated revenues and a scheme for expending them. The order may be reversed; if so, the budget becomes an outline of proposed educational and auxiliary services with their costs and a statement of the revenues needed to pay for them. Under either method, the two parts cover the same school or fiscal year and are in balance. A good budget is based on accurate costs plus intelligent estimates. The costs should be available in detail comparable with the size of the community and should cover a period of at least three years for all items and preferably as long as ten years for the major items of administration, instruction, auxiliary services, operation, maintenance, fixed charges, capital outlay (from revenue), and debt service.

Budgeting for schools is a single phase of public budgeting to which many general principles apply. Anyone wishing to understand both the theory and the practice of budgeting cannot do better than read a standard work on the subject such as Buck's *Public Budgeting*.[14]

Budget procedures similar to the following are generally accepted. Some time before the end of the fiscal year the superintendent of schools requests from each principal and department head an estimate of his anticipated needs for the coming year within his area of responsibility. The requests are reviewed by the superintendent or by an administrative committee if the size of the system warrants. The review seeks (a) to determine validity of requests; (b) to eliminate duplication of items; (c) to restrain expansion to what is practicable; and (d) to discontinue expenditures that are no longer justified. The agreed-upon allowances become the superintendent's budget, which is then approved, amended, or disapproved by the board of education, usually after a public hearing.

A procedure such as outlined is simpler and the results more valid if the cost accounts are organized and available for check reference, exactly as the budget is presented. If cost accounts have been kept in detail over a period of years, all that the superintendent needs to gather from the principals and department heads are contemplated contractions or expansions in functions and personnel. These are then considered together with a projection of

[14] Buck, Arthur E. *Public Budgeting*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1929. 612 p.

the salary schedule, an estimate of possible changes in commodity costs, and the recorded costs of the functions of administration, instruction, auxiliary services, operation, maintenance, fixed charges, capital outlay, and debt service. The superintendent adds his own recommendations and the budget is ready for the consideration of the board. Accurate detailed costs can reduce the labor of budget-making by 90 percent.

Functional costs are those classified under the main headings referred to. Object costs fall under such main headings as personal service, services other than personal, transportation, supplies, and equipment. The list may be extended, and the subdivisions are infinite for those who wish to know the expenditures for such items as, for example, paper—correspondence, bond, 20 lb.

To answer all budget questions, two sets of cost distributions must be maintained, one by function and one by object. A single system of functional costs will, however, furnish the answers to most inquiries if all functional costs are subdivided, as for example:

Account number	Teachers' roll	Other employees	Equipment	Supplies	Communications	Travel	Total
101	$506.20	$110.00	$7.32	$25.00	$4.00	$12.19	$664.71

Such a cost analysis might represent the expenditures for the superintendent's office in a single month. The year's totals by accounts and by objects make excellent budget collateral, especially when used in comparison with those of the preceding and succeeding years.

The subdivision of cost accounts and budget items into dozens or over hundreds of items is justified only in large school systems. The small system needs only a few. The voters should know the anticipated revenues, subdivided; and the expenditures for administration (general control), teachers' salaries, educational supplies, transportation, and other auxiliary costs; plant operation, including fuel and light; maintenance costs, if they involve outside contractors; insurance; and new equipment or extensions. Then there is debt service, if any: twenty headings in a small district and possibly one thousand items in New York City.

TELLING THE FINANCIAL STORY

After the budget figures have been agreed upon, there comes a time when the school board, dependent upon the approval of the city council or other reviewing body, or solely upon the vote of the people, must present its case. Even a wholly independent board with unlimited taxing powers finds it desirable and advisable to take the public into its confidence. A budget presented either before final action or even after as a report need not sacrifice truth or accuracy by being simple and understandable. It should be clear in outline and intelligible to the ordinary person. Tabulations should tell a story of everyday interest; they should not be solely reference material.

Few loftier literary flights have been taken than in the superintendents' reports of a century ago. These may have been read and discussed. Then came the vogue for statistics exhaustively tabulated. By careful search it was perhaps possible to find how much ink was drunk in the first grade, but by this time nobody cracked a report except the responsible official as he set about preparing the next one. In 1928 a popular school budget report was prepared and distributed to practically *all* of the taxpayers of a large city.[15] It was illustrated with charts and graphs. A running story explained the nature of the major expenditures. Many communities have since followed the same plan. The budget report soon acquired human interest photographs and pictographs. But of greater significance is the fact that the educational story has now begun to be told in the same document with the financial statement in as appealing a manner as cuts, art work, and clever captions can produce. After the educational story, then and then only, are given the costs of supporting the educational objectives. In brief, the board and superintendent present both educational objectives and the cost of attaining them. Such a report-budget is read, if only for the pictures, but it is read, and has as a consequence proved a means of forestalling unintelligent criticism and of securing public support, even in unsuspected places.

AUDITING

A system of general accounts and the handling of funds both demand an audit, which in its simplest form is the verification and

[15] The Budget of the Board of Education, Rochester, New York, 1928 (62,000 copies).

analysis of accounting entries. There is frequently a provision of state law either defining the type of audit required or placing the responsibility for audit upon some local or state official. If the law does not prescribe, then a board of education for its own protection should prescribe the type. It may employ an auditor, engage a public accountant, secure the services of a state or county official, or have a committee of its own members examine the accounts and verify the cash and securities in bank and till. Of all, the last method is the least desirable.

A straight financial audit is one thing; an audit for legality and propriety is another. Both are important. It is good to know that the books are accurate; even better, that the expenditures are legal and proper. Illegal expenditures can be anticipated by the use of the preaudit. This merely means that no order is written, contract signed, or person employed until the board is assured in writing of both the availability of funds and the legality of the proposed expenditure, and not infrequently its propriety. The usual postaudit may be too late to prevent a budget overrun or a suit to compel fulfilment of an incurred obligation. A postaudit must be thoro, assuring not only accuracy in payments but that all vendors have met the specifications and stipulations in their respective orders. It has been said that the honesty of vendors often reflects the integrity of the audit.

Internal auditing has increased in significance. Both public funds and student funds handled in the individual schools have acquired importance never before attached to them. Unfortunate experience has shown that only after a principal, teacher, clerk, or student has by accident been found to have made off with funds has it been noticed for the first time that individual school units frequently handle during the year large amounts in book rentals, fees, game and entertainment admissions, and in lunchroom receipts. A general audit of a school system should today provide for the periodic audit of all school funds, including both athletic and other student funds. The state legislature may not as yet have delegated specific responsibility for the care and custody of school funds to the school boards of the state, but in the minds of the public that is where it rests. For its own protection, as well as theirs, a board of education should be assured that its employees and students are above suspicion.

BONDS FOR FIDELITY

Based on the law of averages a shortage in funds or a disappearance of school property will occur from time to time. A close audit and careful supervision will decrease the frequency, but shortages will probably still be disclosed. Such discrepancies can be further decreased in frequency and the financial loss reduced to zero thru the purchase of fidelity bonds. The law usually requires that certain positions such as those of collector, treasurer, or cashier be bonded in specific amounts. A new development is the blanket fidelity bond for all teachers and general employees other than those covered by specific bonds. The "moral effect" of such a bond is good and protection to the board of education is complete.

PURCHASING

Closely allied to the financial procedures is purchasing. From an accounting viewpoint this important function is, next to the payroll, the one to be watched the closest, especially for its effect upon the budget. When, as in most school systems, purchasing and storage are integrated, stock control is a matter of first importance as a budget-balancing procedure. In the North the coal pile furnishes both heat for the plant and balance for the budget.

Altho the elements are simple, volumes have been written on purchasing.[16] First are the controls: statutory requirements, budget allotments, inventory limits, and standard specifications. Statutory limitations usually provide that purchases shall be made from the lowest responsible bidder, that they may not be made from a board member or firm in which he has a substantial interest, that formal public bids shall be received if the contract is to exceed a certain amount, and that specifications shall be open to all qualified bidders and complete with quantities actually to be purchased.

A board that takes pride in its reputation respects both the letter and the spirit of the law and in the absence of legal signposts follows a course marked by fair and open dealing. Purchases should not exceed budget allotments without formal approval of the board, and purchases for stock should not serve to raise the inventory above predetermined limits unless specifically authorized. Specification

[16] Among the helpful publications available are those published by the National Association of Public School Business Officials, such as *Selection, Purchase, Storage and Distribution of Supplies* (Bulletin No. 1, 1932) and *School Supplies; Selection, Storage In Small Cities* (Bulletin No. 6, 1938). Address of secretary: H. W. Cramblet, 341 South Bellefield Ave., Pittsburgh, Pa. Also consult Chapters 16 and 17 in the 1939 yearbook, American Association of School Administrators.

standards, especially for educational supplies, should be largely determined by the users. It is good practice for supply purchases to be divided into categories, with corresponding stores sections. The amount, type, and quality of each item to be purchased and stored are then determined annually by a small committee of those most concerned.

Cooperative buying and the use of county and state discounts are relatively new developments. There are also buying associations which provide technical advice and other cooperative features. Purchasing procedures start with the requisition, except in the rare community which attempts to anticipate all possible needs in one annual order. The requisition should be in writing and signed. It should be so clear and precise that the person who buys knows exactly what is wanted. After the requisition has been checked against the balance remaining in the school or departmental budget and equipment or supply standards, it is referred to the superintendent or an assistant who judges the request as a matter of policy or precedent setting. If approved, it then is ready for the purchaser. The order should be written and with an adequate number of copies, usually two to six or more; for example: (a) to the vendor, (b) to the requisitioner, (c) to the budget control clerk, (d) file copy by schools or departments, (e) file copy by vendors, and (f) extra copy for follow-up. The person who requisitions usually receives the delivery. He then signs his copy of the order and returns it as authority for payment. If the requisition and receipted copy of the order are attached to the payment voucher when it is filed, the board has a full story of the purchase in question.

HEADQUARTERS INSPECTION

To get what it needs and what it pays for, a small school or system must rely upon the integrity of its suppliers; a large one, upon the vendors, the excellence of its specifications, and the care exercised in inspection. Few places will be able to afford a local testing laboratory, and few untrained individuals are competent to write technical specifications, but in nearly every school system more can be done to assure the pupils the supplies and equipment best adapted to their use. The greater the efforts in writing specifications and in inspection, the greater will be the reward and incentive for responsible firms to serve the schools.

STORES AND TRANSPORTATION—YES OR NO

Should a school system maintain its own storehouse with a delivery system, or should it rely upon vendors' facilities? There is no answer except that the larger the school system or administrative unit, the greater the saving in bulk purchases. It is possible, however, that boards of education in communities of moderate size may find that stores, aside from quickly needed books, stationery, and operating supplies, are a luxury, the cost of maintenance, depreciation, obsolescence, and transportation having more than offset the quantity discount and the added convenience. Likewise, it may be less handy but more economical to hire truckmen than to maintain transportation.

Operation and Maintenance

As in instruction, the board of education must decide, in carrying on the maintenance and operation of its plant, whether to do so on a building unit or system basis. The smaller community finds the unit basis more prudent and economical, while the city usually centralizes its controls over the plant functions. On a building unit basis, the principal is captain and the janitor is first mate. They order, even tho they should requisition, what they need in the way of school supplies, fuel, paint, window glass, electrical and plumbing supplies, and the like. If the principal is frugal and the janitor competent, there is no more satisfactory method. But when there are several buildings, strong personal qualities are not always found in both persons. Then central control is indicated. One janitor may be made supervising janitor or chief custodian, or if the size of the community warrants, there may be appointed a superintendent of buildings and grounds with a small staff of mechanics, a field inspector, and a draftsman. With further growth come mechanical, electrical, and structural engineers; more inspectors, an architect, and additional draftsmen; the creation of a division for the location of building sites; and the enumeration of facilities to be incorporated in new structures. With growth in school population, the janitor becomes a custodian or engineer, but neither he nor the principal longer runs the ship. The decision as to the amount to be expended for maintenance is determined in the central office as a percentage of the valuation of the plant or as a certain share

of the total budget. Painting is not done on order but on a schedule, such as two to three years for exterior trim and five to ten years for classrooms and corridors—the standards determined by local conditions.

The board of education in Middletown probably operates a repair shop where it mends and refinishes furniture and equipment, sharpens tools, reconditions athletic equipment, and maintains all typewriters and office machines. The men working in this shop "double in brass"; they substitute for indisposed janitors, meet storm emergencies, and the better mechanics may make routine and emergency plumbing and electrical repairs. Only the large alteration and replacement jobs are let to contractors.

The smaller town schools seek with wisdom the consulting services of a good architect or engineer, who guides their policies in the installation of heating plants, ventilation, and roof types. A myriad of such matters, if decided wisely, save dollars but, if decided unwisely, squander them.

The problems of plant operation and maintenance are the problems of maintaining a home. The only real difference is in size. The board member who takes pride in his own home, maintaining it well but economically, can readily appreciate plant problems in a school system and can arrive at the right decision in solving them.

Miscellaneous Functions

As in industry, there are many everyday matters which appear commonplace and unimportant, but let one of them go sour and the heavens fall upon the unsuspecting board of education. The traditional example is a fire, let us say, from pupils' smoking. Or poor inspection of refrigeration may result in food poisoning, or perhaps a pupil loses a hand in an unguarded power press or shear. Possibly the man who drives the bus is known to a few to have "spells," but the whole board knows it only too well the day after he has an epileptic seizure and stalls the bus across the "four corners." In short, there are few minor matters in school business administration, from the acquisition of milk to the purchase of postage stamps.

It is the care with which the board carries on its varied functions that is reflected in public confidence. No care results in a vote of no

confidence, while great care creates both confidence and respect.

The matter of insurance is obviously important. Other than purchases of milk or coal no business is more earnestly sought, to a point where frequently *who* is to get the insurance is a more discussed question than *what* or *how* to insure. In no field does a board have greater need for competent, disinterested advice. The smaller the school system, the more it needs insurance, especially fire insurance. Valuable assistance in securing fire insurance at lowest cost for the protection desired is available from such organizations as the Municipal Finance Officers' Association.[17] The larger the school system, the greater the number of insurable hazards. There are in even the largest systems certain hazards that a board should not unconsciously "self-insure." These are usually concentrated or special risks, such as a possible fire in a storehouse or shop, money, elevators, boilers, and pupil transportation. There is an increasing tendency for the old common law to pass away and for the state to become liable for its negligence, altho as yet the school districts of only two or three states are affected.

Insurance practices are changing rapidly. The trend is toward fewer policies with broader coverage, written for longer periods. The keen board follows trends and, if by chance there is an opportunity for economies, it cancels its policy and buys a new one for the longest possible term.

There is the matter of communications, both external and internal, all the way from no telephone in the single school to a telephone in each classroom and a tie-line from the central office to every school, plus a short-wave or frequency modulation (FM) broadcasting station with outlets in all classrooms. A board should have occasion to decide between individual local intercommunication systems in the several buildings, with only one or two direct outside lines, and public service switchboards with extensions; also to decide between direct tie-lines from the office to the schools and calling thru central. The soundness of decisions of this type is reflected in both administrative efficiency and financial expenditures.

In larger systems a number of business matters, which only occasionally occur or are transacted in small volume in most school business offices, need constant attention; for example, pupil feed-

[17] Barnes, Robert S. *Fire Insurance for Local and State Governments.* Chicago: Municipal Finance Officers' Association, 1945. 22 p.

ing,[18] transportation for atypical pupils, transportation of distant pupils (particularly important in small towns and rural communities),[19] accidents to pupils and teachers, rental of school buildings and sites, the acceptance of gifts, and the provision of indigent pupils with glasses and gymnasium shoes. The list is long and growing longer. Each of these functions, if well handled, is carried on in accordance with standards established by the board of education.

Personnel—Administration and Payment

What is it that consumes from 80 to over 90 percent of the school budget? There is but one answer—salaries and allied expenditures. We all know what basic salaries are, but the growing number of expenditures allied to salaries have not been so thoroly explored and understood. There may be, for example, retirement payments by the school, illness allowances, accident payments in lieu of workmen's compensation, or compensation itself. Then there may be sabbatical allowances for travel and study, reimbursement for tuition payments to colleges and graduate schools, and allowances for days off to visit other schools. In some teaching classifications there are payments for necessary transportation above that required of a regular classroom teacher; here home visitors and attendance officers usually qualify and receive monthly or annual allowances or possibly mileage. In the fourth category are payments for overtime and for specific duties illustrated by supervision of after school clubs, by cashiering in the lunchroom, and by officiating at athletic contests.

A fifth group of expenditures allied to salaries includes housing for custodians and cars for the central office staff. All of the foregoing payments may be and usually are legal and ethical. Whether they are all advisable is an entirely different question. Not so defensible are perquisites, some at public but many at pupil expense, such as time off from teaching plus a fixed sum for maintaining order in the lunchroom; policing special occasions; the privilege of selling course outlines, magazine subscriptions, and supplies to students; likewise furnishing athletic equipment and locks; and that conscience disturber, the retention of royalties on textbooks used in the local system. The last is forbidden by state law in Illinois.

[18] Bryan, Mary de G. *The School Cafeteria.* New York: F. S. Crofts and Co., 1936. 726 p.

[19] Standards for school buses were revised at a conference at Jackson's Mill, West Virginia, October 29-November 2, 1945. These revised standards may be obtained from the NEA Commission on Safety Education, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Salaries and allowances are important not only as public expenditures but equally as builders or destroyers of morale. Staff morale depends upon a sound, adequate, and well-administered salary schedule, fair and equitable supplementary payments, good working conditions, and opportunity for professional growth and achievement. The details of salary schedule administration and personnel management are dealt with further in Chapter V.

The administration of personnel is an art. A school board is wise which lets an administrator learn it or employs one who has learned. Such a man with the backing of the board can see that the board is kept fully informed in the technic of salary payments and allowances, recognizes and appreciates the teachers' point of view, and interprets the desires and aspirations of the staff accurately. Board members should understand as early as possible in their term of office that a teacher's salary is a matter of public record, unlike most salaries paid in industry and in private institutions. As a consequence, the matter of equity is a matter of strategic as well as ethical importance.

A teacher is frequently more concerned that his salary is at least as high as that of the teacher who started in the same year than in the amount of his check. In every personnel action there must be the assumption that whatever is done will presently be known by every employee and that, so far as possible, it must be fair in all eyes.

The payment of salaries on an individual basis is difficult and dangerous, even tho by this means merit is recognized. That is why some legislatures have prescribed that teachers' salaries shall be "uniform," meaning that all teachers in the same grade, teaching the same special subject, or having the same training and experience shall be treated alike. Such criteria are all objective, and the result of their application is uniformity. The result in addition is usually overpayment for the mediocre and underpayment for the able teacher.

The sooner that a board of education adopts a salary schedule and administrative rules concerning illness, accidents, absences, leaves, training in service, and retirement, and enforces them sympathetically and uniformly, the fewer will be its personnel problems arising from economic causes.

Looking Ahead

Every board of education, no matter what the size of the community, should have a financial program and a set of guiding principles controlling both its current and capital expenditures. The two are interdependent.

The budget is the outline of the current financial plan for one year, but that is not enough. Between the extremes of visionary fiscal plans extending over a quarter century or more and the opportunistic type with adjustment and expediency the only standards, there is a middle course which, subject to modification, can be followed for from three to five years. Such a course is planned after consideration of possible growth in the community, changes in over-all income, attendance trends in private schools, and the purchasing power of the dollar. The inexperienced public official instinctively knows that in taxation the amount to be raised as expressed by the tax rate is important, but only by experience does he learn that the rate of increase or even decrease is at least as important. A plan which seeks to stabilize the school tax at a fair rate within a reasonable time has, as a consequence, a rather better than average chance of acceptance.

The capital budget which reflects the program of plant development obviously affects the current budget. In the capital budget are the facilities needed, the years in which they should be provided, and the construction, equipment, and operating costs. New operating costs will clearly become charges in future current budgets, but how about the capital costs? The answer is found in the plan of financing: (a) pay as you go, (b) creation of a building fund, (c) issuance of short-term notes, or (d) issuance of long-term bonds. As has been pointed out, "borrowing is a legalized governmental business procedure and will continue." [20]

Without borrowing, the expansion of the public-school plants following World War I could not have taken place. The depression served to bring to the surface the many instances of overborrowing and poor financing incidental to this growth and so disclosed the dangers inherent in the misuse and overuse of public credit. It highlighted the defects in long-term borrowing. Roughly speaking, the hazards are in inverse ratio to the size of the community be-

[20] Engelhardt, N. L., and Engelhardt, Fred. *Public School Business Administration.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. p. 407.

cause the larger the community or public body, the broader its taxing powers until the unlimited powers of the sovereign state are reached. One of the results of wartime inflation with superabundant tax yields has been the general acceptance of the reserve fund, which had previously been under suspicion. The creation of reserves or building funds in anticipation of plant expansion or replacement has received the official sanction of the legislature of the state of New York and the endorsement of the Municipal Finance Officers' Association of the United States and Canada.[21] Straight pay as you go will be found to be impracticable for all save the great cities where a large, uniform capital appropriation can be included in the annual levy. The result of the annual appropriation of a fixed sum is both a saving in debt charges and a stable tax. The trend at this time is toward local saving in anticipation of local needs.

The low interest rates prevailing today may prove a temptation to many school boards. A combination of money at 1 percent or less and a nationwide drive to keep the building trades employed will cause more than the normal number of schools to be constructed. Low interest rates obscure large repayments of principal. A canny board, before embarking on a building program, will carefully outline the educational needs to be met, the facilities to be provided, the teaching staff to be employed, and the carrying charges for both the new plant and the new educational facilities. The more carefully such a study is made, especially when carried on in conjunction with an economic survey of the community, the less liable is the future school tax to be burdensome.

Office Work Versus Homework

No one seems to care where school administration is carried on. In many instances the wear and tear on brief cases by school administrators is as much the result of poor office planning as of faulty administration and excessive loads. No one can carry on the administrative and supervisory work of the schools in cramped, ill-lighted, dirty, noisy, and draughty offices. Communities like Ithaca and Jamestown, New York, and cities like Cleveland, Pittsburgh, Denver, and Oakland are conspicuous for the excellence of their central school offices, but in general both the

[21] Annual meeting, Pittsburgh, Pa., June 1943.

central and individual school offices are the last places to be studied for efficiency and effectiveness. For the good of the system, the school office quite obviously needs to be accessible, of adequate size, well heated and ventilated, carefully lighted, and acoustically treated. There is need for parking space for both those who work in the office and those called in for conference. The office arrangement is vital. How often light, air, peace, and quiet are apportioned in relation to the eminence of the position rather than the need of the worker. And too often unrelated functions are carried on in adjoining offices, or at the other extreme the educational offices are centrally housed and the business offices are in the storehouse blocks or even miles away. The care with which the educational and business administrators are housed and the location of the educational and business functions in the school office are matters of importance. The physical aspects of an office affect the occupant and, if that occupant is uncomfortable or continually inconvenienced, he may as he leaves fill his brief case a bit heavier with homework—but in that case the schools will not get his best decisions.

The financing and business administration of a school system are not secondary to any phase of schoolwork. Neither is the school plant the major educational objective. School business administration is an integral part of good school management. As such it needs the administrative oversight of the superintendent of schools and the interest and judgment of the board of education.

Signposts for Service . . .

★ *The formulation of the educational program is a democratic process involving the board of education, interested laymen, the superintendent of schools, the professional staff, and student councils.*

★ *The problems of modern life call for a comprehensive school program geared to the needs of children, youth, and adults. Extensions downward for young children, upward for adults, and special programs for veterans and displaced war workers are now in order.*

★ *Boards of education delegate to their professional staffs responsibility for preparing courses of study. They facilitate this work by releasing teachers from classroom duties, paying for workshops and summer courses, and avoiding unnecessary interference in the process.*

★ *Under the board's policies a modern program provides for guidance and counseling, flexibility in pupil classification, provision for individual differences, and the common learnings related to civic, economic, and family competence.*

★ *An educational program today is enriched and made effective by means of adequate buildings, extensive library facilities, numerous examples of art and music, and an integrated audio-visual program including radio equipment and motion pictures.*

★ *Schools are no longer confined within the four walls of the classroom but thru transportation bring their pupils new experiences in museums, factories, parks, farms, camping, and recreation.*

★ *The school board not only keeps informed as to the educational program in its own district, but by conferences and visits it becomes informed on educational progress in other communities. By such broadening experiences the board can work more intelligently with its own staff members and judge wisely their recommendations.*

CHAPTER VII

School Boards and Educational Programs

THE WAR HAS ENDED and the problems of the peace are upon us. In such days as these, boards of education face new responsibilities. Educational programs must be adjusted to meet the new challenge of returning veterans and youthful war workers; to provide for the vocational reeducation of millions of men and women; to expand adult education in order to meet the demand for understanding in the economic, social, and political fields; and above all to provide an education for youth suitable to a new day in a world made one by air transport, radio, and the release of atomic energy.

Local Control of Education

Can boards of education in the local units of control meet the problems of education in the critical years that lie ahead? The answer is that they must do so. The genius of our system of public education lies in its effective local adaptation by boards responsive to the demands of the people. The faith in education that has built our great public-school system is sustained largely by the realization that the schools are subject to local control, that they are largely autonomous, and that they are subject to little interference from any outside authority.

Past experience shows, however, that local control has produced uneven results. Some rich communities have provided far better schools than less fortunate communities could afford. Some boards have been wiser than others in selecting the professional staff, in providing good buildings and adequate equipment, and in maintaining a modern program of education. Local pride has operated to maintain small units when larger units of local control would have been more efficient. The tradition of local autonomy has prevented many states from developing strong state departments of education under lay boards. The lack of leadership at the state level has resulted in low standards for local boards to reach; it has permitted programs in many local systems to lag far behind the best practices of other systems in the state; and

it has, therefore, deprived a large proportion of the children of the state of their birthright—a good and equal educational opportunity.

EDUCATION LEGALLY A STATE RESPONSIBILITY

The laws of the various states and the decisions of the courts agree in recognizing that education is a state responsibility. Local boards of education are legally both agents of the state and representatives of the people in their communities. Their powers are defined by the laws of the several states. In the last analysis, the citizens of the state control public education in the state. Thru the legislature the people can prescribe any and every detail of the program of studies; require that plans for buildings be approved by the state department of education; fix a minimum salary for teachers; establish standards for teachers' certificates; set up a retirement system for teachers and other employees; provide for permanent tenure for teachers; and, in fact, control any detail whatsoever.

The powers of the state have seldom been used to restrict the autonomy of local boards of education. Broad grants of power usually have been made. Little interference from the state is found in most of the states, but, in one area, recent years have seen a rapid increase in the number of specific legislative prescriptions. This is in the field of what shall be taught in the schools. By 1903 the forty-eight state legislatures had enacted laws which made 564 curriculum prescriptions for the elementary schools. By 1940 the number had doubled.[1] The prescriptions can be classified under eight headings. It is interesting to note that prescriptions relating to the "fundamental subjects" have remained practically unchanged in total number over the 37-year period. In 1903, such prescriptions numbered 197; in 1940, 203. During the same time prescriptions relating to "nationalism" have more than doubled in number—in 1903, 147; in 1940, 400. "Health and temperance" have also been given much attention by legislatures. In 1903, prescriptions in this area numbered 102; in 1940, 220 were in force. The other classifications show the same tendency toward increased prescriptions. Those relating to "religious and ethical

[1] Flanders, Jesse K. *Legislative Control of the Elementary Curriculum.* Contributions to Education, No. 195. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925. 242 p. ¶ Shaner, James D. *Legislative Control of the Elementary Curriculum from 1924 to 1940.* Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh, 1941. 266 p. (Doctor's thesis.)

subjects" increased from 74 in 1903 to 106 in 1940; those relating to "practical and cultural subjects" increased from 24 in 1903 to 75 in 1940; those relating to "humaneness" increased from 12 in 1903 to 39 in 1940; those relating to "conservation of life and property" increased from 1 in 1903 to 53 in 1940; and those relating to "miscellaneous subjects" increased from 7 in 1903 to 22 in 1940.

In Ohio the state legislature had made a variety of prescriptions having to do with the curriculum. In 1942 the school code commission recommended that all such laws be repealed except the one which required every high-school student to take a year of American history before graduation. The 1943 session of the legislature accordingly repealed all prescriptions save the one relating to American history. The law now provides that each local board of education must prescribe the program of studies for the school system. The action of the local board is subject to the approval of the state department of education. Thus local initiative is encouraged under a minimum of state direction. Usually the people of a state will have a more effective and more continuous influence over the schools thru a state board of education and a strong state department than thru detailed legislative prescriptions established by the state legislature.

LOCAL BOARDS OF EDUCATION

The recognition that education is a state responsibility and that the people of the state have some part in the control of public education makes it necessary to define the functions of local boards of education. The members of these boards, whether elected by popular vote or appointed, are primarily responsible to the citizens of their local communities. Within legal limits they have complete freedom of action in selecting personnel and in fixing salaries and working conditions. All questions of educational policy are within their powers in most states and should be delegated to them in all states. With reference to the educational program the local school board has three major functions: it puts into effect the minimum program of the state; it adapts the state program to the local community; and when financially able to do so it extends the program beyond the state minimum.

In recent years many local boards have developed certain pro-

cedures for securing community participation in studying the needs of the community and in setting up a program for the schools to meet these needs. Professional personnel increasingly have a voice in determining recommendations made to boards of education by superintendents of schools. Now and then student councils have been invited to study the problems involved in educational policy-making.

As the advantages of more democratic control of education become apparent and as the principles of democratic school administration are more widely accepted, it seems certain that local boards will rely more and more on community councils, parent-teacher councils, professional staff councils, and student councils. Many agencies of the community are concerned with health, welfare, and recreation. Both public and private agencies in these areas should be invited by the board of education to sit with them in discussing and formulating educational policies.

The People Look at the Public School

The fact that schools are good when communities want them to be good makes public opinion of vital importance. The local board of education should be concerned to discover what people think about education. They should go further and seek to inform the public so that public opinion may be fully enlightened. The use of some method of determining what people are thinking is clearly desirable. The technics that have been developed for use in national polls may be helpful in local communities, but only trained and experienced interviewers should be used. Great care must be taken in stating the questions.

In a recent study the National Opinion Research Center of the University of Denver asked the following questions in every part of the United States:

> What do you think is the most important thing for children to get from their education in school?
>
> Are you satisfied with what they [your children] are getting from their education in school? (Asked only of parents.)
>
> Is there any kind of change you would like to see made in the public schools?[2]

When asked to name the most important things children should

[2] National Opinion Research Center. *The Public Looks at Education*. Report No. 21. Denver, Colo.: the Center (University of Denver), 1944. 40 p.

SECRETARIES—*keep many activities within the school moving smoothly. Often they relieve teachers of routine tasks, graciously meet school visitors, and help administrators with their many complex duties.*

Photograph by
Rebecca Snyder, New York, New York

get from their public-school education, Americans rank a mastery of *academic subjects* and the development of desirable *character traits* of first and equal importance, followed by *vocational training, citizenship education,* and experience in making *social adjustments.*

While no one questions the great importance of mastery of the fundamental subjects, it is disturbing to see that only 14 percent regard citizenship education as the most important outcome of education, as compared with 34 percent who regard the academic subjects as most important. In view of the recent recognition of the importance of education for social adjustment, it is disappointing that only 11 percent consider learning to get along with other people as the most important part of a child's education.

When asked what should be changed in education, more than half of the American public suggest no changes in the public schools as they are today. Eighty percent of parents with children in school say they are satisfied with what their children are getting from their education in school. Of those who suggested changes almost half would like to see modifications in *curriculum* and *teaching methods.* Some of the comments, opposed to modern education, are as follows:

I think they should go back to old style education, not so many new fangled ideas.

I don't like modern education. They should get back to the fundamentals and the old-fashioned ways of teaching.

I'd like to see less experimentation with crackpot progressive ideas.

I'd like to see more emphasis on the old three R's—not so much of this new fangled "progressive" education.

They shouldn't teach subjects like music appreciation that no one benefits from.

Leave off home economics and other fancy things. Stick to plain learning.

The schools need more reading, writing, and arithmetic. Cut out the modern methods.

I want more emphasis on reading, writing, and arithmetic—not so much on social problems.

The schools are way behind on their arithmetic.

They need more Latin—it's the foundation of much else.

More time and stress should be given to their studies, less to programs that don't amount to anything.

On the other hand, progressive tendencies are shown by such replies as the following:

I'd like to see more group activity and progressive training in our schools.

We need progressive education—more freedom for individual tastes.

The schools shouldn't be so concerned with only teaching subjects; they should be more concerned with teaching children.

They shouldn't try to make all pupils in the same pattern.

The work should be planned more as to what each child needs.

I'd like to see more music appreciation classes.

Children need more actual creative experiences—applied music, dancing, domestic arts.

All first class schools should have manual training and domestic arts classes.

The schools should provide more vocational training, particularly for children who don't learn easily.

The country schools should pay more attention to teaching agriculture.

I'd like to see vocational schools a part of the public school system.

They should put more stress on vocational work. Every school should have a well trained vocational counselor.

The complete report of this survey of public opinion exposed "areas of ignorance and misinformation regarding education in the United States." It clearly indicates a need for more intensive surveys in various localities to determine public understanding of and reactions to specific educational policies.

The Educational Program

An analysis of the educational program is necessary in order to show the problems which may arise in any local school district and which must be met by local boards of education. Some of them will arise indirectly in the course of setting up budgets and making financial policies. Many others will unconsciously be handed over to the professional staff by default because local boards have failed to realize the importance of devoting much time to the study of the problems that concern the educational program.

SCOPE OF THE PROGRAM

Usually the program of public education includes only eleven or twelve years. The kindergarten is found in most cities, but it is not universal in the country as a whole. The junior college has grown rapidly in recent years, but it is still unusual to find it even in the larger cities. The evidence is now overwhelming that the typical school system is no longer adequate. Downward extension to include kindergartens and nursery schools and upward extension to include Grades XIII and XIV are necessary if the needs of chil-

dren and youth are to be met. It will be necessary to extend the school program for young children if "full employment" of adults is to be generally effective. Adult education for all who will avail themselves of it is urgently needed. The return of millions of veterans and the displacement of millions of war workers involve staggering problems looking to vocational readjustments. Those whose education stopped short of high-school graduation will scarcely fit into the pattern of the high school. Post-secondary schools should be provided not only for their preemployment needs but also for their needs as citizens and as members of new family units. General education as well as vocational education should be included in any upward extension of the high school. The traditionally long summer vacation period is likely to undergo change. It is a period that can be used for camping activities, recreation, work experience, and safety education, all related to the present educational program.

Many problems of scope will have to be faced during these post-war years. Local boards may well seek the cooperation of all interested citizens as well as the parents and the students. The professional staff may be expected to make the necessary technical studies and to submit proposals and recommendations, but, in the last analysis, decisions on policy can be made only by local boards.

The responsibility of the state in this connection is to provide leadership and guidance, to find ways and means for supporting an expanded program, and to provide for regional schools under local control with a large measure of state support when the upward extension is made. Probably the downward extension into kindergartens and nursery schools will also require state support.

PROGRAM OF STUDIES

The program of studies refers to the over-all structure of the curriculum of a given school. It is fast coming to be recognized that student activities of all sorts are essential and should have their place in the official program of studies. The determination of the structural organization of the schools is properly the responsibility of the local board of education, but parents and other interested citizens as well as community organizations should share in making the schools measure up to the standards which the people as a whole desire to see attained.

One of the best sources for any member of a local board of education or any interested citizen is the recent report of the Educational Policies Commission, entitled *Education for All American Youth*. In this book a detailed, concrete program is set up for "Farmville," a rural secondary school including Grades X thru XIV. A similar program is described for "American City," and a system for the state of "Columbia" is outlined in some detail. It sets forth the necessity for "common learnings." The following six areas, in addition to health and work experience, are proposed as making up the indispensable content for all American youth:

1. Civic responsibility and competence
2. Understanding of the operation of the economic system and of the human relations involved therein
3. Family relationships
4. Intelligent action as consumers
5. Appreciation of beauty
6. Proficiency in the use of language.[3]

When it comes to the preparation of courses of study and the construction of specific units of study, the professional staff of the schools should be free from interference from any pressure groups. The board of education, having set up the program of studies, should refrain from any and every form of dictation to its professional staff and should protect the staff from any outside pressure whatsoever. Curriculum planning and development is a highly technical task which requires special training and which is based on scientific knowledge of physical, emotional, and intellectual growth. Board members do not have and cannot be expected to have the technical competence to pass on the work of expert teachers in this field, any more than the patient's family can pass on the scientific details of the doctor's treatment. Nor can the board pass upon specific textbooks, library materials, or methods of teaching. The board should review the broad policies involved in setting up the program of studies, but it should delegate complete and final authority to the professional staff for developing the details.

In recent years boards have begun to recognize the importance of work on the courses of study. Teachers have been released from

[3] National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *Education for All American Youth*. Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1944. p. 249-50.

regular teaching duties for weeks or months at a time to prepare courses of study for citywide or statewide use. The tuition of teachers has been paid, and railroad fare and living expenses as well, so that they could attend summer workshops where intensive work on courses of study is carried on most effectively. It still remains for boards to make provision in the standard definition of teaching load for time for continuous planning and revising of courses of study and for regular group meetings in the school day to facilitate cooperative teaching of related subjects.

CONTROVERSIAL ISSUES

No more important problem arises in the construction of units of study than is presented by controversial issues. By definition, controversial issues are those which divide the local community. They include all the problems that are vitally important for modern living on which people in the community have conflicting views. Shall the schools avoid these issues? Shall these vital problems be excluded from the classroom? Here the local board should take a stand. It should protect teachers who deal with these live subjects. Of course, such issues should come up only when and as the interests and previous experiences of the children make them appropriate. Moreover, they should be treated fairly and in terms suited to the degree of maturity of the learners.

It will make for clearer thinking if a few of the most important areas of controversy now present in our society are listed. These issues are typical of those which must be faced:

1. Shall national sovereignty be limited in order to establish a world organization that will operate under international law?

2. Shall a high level of employment be accepted as the major goal of American economic life, in accordance with proposals made by the Committee for Economic Development, National Association of Manufacturers, United States Chamber of Commerce, American Legion, Congress of Industrial Organizations, American Federation of Labor, Railroad Brotherhoods, United Mine Workers of America, Farmers' Educational and Co-operative Union of America, and American Farm Bureau Federation?

3. Shall fairness, justice, and equality of educational, social, and economic opportunity be the basis for handling majority-minority relationships? Shall the Negro, the American-born Japanese, and the Spanish-American become full and accepted members of American society?

4. Shall spiritual values find their proper place in the public schools? Shall

the emphasis be placed on the agreements in terms of behavior instead of on the differences in terms of creeds?

5. Shall child welfare, education, recreation, and health be the common, primary concern of all agencies that are interested in children and youth? Shall education for homemaking, for family life, for wholesome sex relationships, and for healthful living be provided in all public schools at the appropriate levels?

The problem of academic freedom often arises when selfish or misguided individuals or pressure groups seek to interfere with the work of the school. Such interference may be positive or negative. It may seek to have the schools do something or seek to prevent the schools from doing something else. In either case, the board should examine the proposals or objections with care and decide on a course of action which will be for the best interests of the school and community.

Usually academic freedom is involved only in the teaching of controversial issues. Teachers who are competent to deal with controversial issues must be protected from unjust criticism by individuals or organizations. Such protection does not extend to improper and prejudiced instruction.

In order to provide for busy board members a direct introduction to these typical issues of today, several books and bulletins are listed in the "Selected References," on pages 265-66.

GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING

Of equal importance in the total program of the school with the program of studies is the modern emphasis on guidance and counseling. Guidance and counseling are needed in the elementary school and on thru the secondary school. Skilled counselors must be provided for this work. Rarely is counseling service now provided in the elementary school, except by the regular teachers. Even in secondary schools, the number of skilled counselors is far from sufficient. Equally important is the initial placement service for those who drop out of school and for the graduates who do not go on into college. The placement service should also have charge of finding for students significant types of work experience and various forms of community participation, especially in welfare, recreation, and other services needed in the community. In all these experiences the placement service should work closely in cooperation with the counselors and should provide adequate

follow-up in order to coordinate the work experience, the community participation, and the early experiences on the job with the counseling services of the school.

Administration of the Program

Some of the problems involved in the administration of the educational program are very important; for example, the teaching load and the two main factors which determine load, namely, size and number of classes. The cost per pupil is, of course, a direct function of teaching load, but more significant is the fact that proper provision for individual differences is rendered impossible by excessive teaching load. Many classes in both elementary and secondary schools are much too large for effective instruction. (See Chapter V.)

Grading and classification of pupils are still done according to traditional patterns in practically all school systems. Major improvements have been effected in some schools. The plan used in Cleveland and a few other cities for the ungraded primary has substituted reading levels and arithmetic levels for the typical organization into grades. Great flexibility and consequent increase in effectiveness of provision for individual differences are the main outcomes.

The grouping of pupils for instruction according to their special interests, needs, and capacities is now done effectively in many school systems. The so-called homogeneous group is, of course, never completely homogeneous with respect to any single trait. It is still less possible for it to be homogeneous with respect to several traits. Moreover, the differing rates of learning quickly destroy whatever homogeneity existed when the groups were organized. The ideal goal, therefore, is to require classification for each major type of educational activity, with frequent reclassification as instructional conditions require.

The major problem in the administration of the educational program involves the supervision, evaluation, and continuous revision of the program. The board of education should provide adequate personnel for carrying on this threefold function. The largest project of local government has seldom been carried on with proper attention to constructive supervision, careful evaluation, and constant improvement of the service rendered.

One fundamental distinction needs to be made in this connection. The local board of education is and should be the final authority in deciding what should be the goals of education in the schools under its control. But the professional staff should have final authority in organizing the detailed courses of study and in setting up the units of study. The board is entitled to know what is included in the courses of study and what results are being secured. Indeed, the board is charged with the responsibility of requiring correction of any deficiencies that become apparent in the work of the schools.

PHYSICAL FACTORS

In general, the physical factors that condition the educational program have not been planned and provided with the sole purpose of facilitating the program. School buildings are seldom built to suit a program clearly planned in advance. And yet the advantage of such preliminary planning of the program seems self-evident. The furniture and equipment of a modern school should be selected according to specifications that result from an analysis of the needs of the program. Supplies should also be provided generously so that the program will be made more effective. Economy is proper, but it can be carried to an extreme.

One lesson from the educational programs of the armed services should be emphasized. Audio-visual aids are vitally necessary in the educational equipment of a modern school. Libraries of slides, film slides, motion pictures, and recordings must be available in every school system. Projection equipment, radios, and phonographs are essential. Textbooks must be vastly improved by use of more effective illustrations. Given the necessary instructional materials, teachers will be able to duplicate the amazing results achieved by the armed services.

The selection of audio-visual aids and of textbooks should involve the participation of classroom teachers. Uniformity on a statewide basis can have little value. Even within a single school district much can be gained by permitting some freedom of choice to meet the needs of the pupils more effectively.

In addition to the use of community resources, such as libraries, museums, and symphony orchestras, the schools need the services of trained librarians, gifted artists and musicians, and other spe-

cial personnel who can inspire in the children the love of beauty and the enjoyment of great literature. All schools, elementary and secondary, should have library facilities well stocked with books and magazines. Similarly, the equipment of schools should include numerous examples of great art and excellent musical instruments, including phonographs for playing the music of symphony and opera.

If community resources are to be utilized to the most effective degree, provision should be made for school buses to transport groups of children, even whole schools, to concerts, art museums, museums of natural history, to industrial plants and farms, to the city hall and the courts, and to parks and places of historical interest.

Responsibility of the Local Board

The responsibility of the local board in relation to the educational program may be summed up in these three sentences:

1. The board should know the characteristics of a good educational program.
2. The board should know what is going on in the local schools and in the best school systems in other parts of the country.
3. The board should constantly be evaluating and improving the work of the schools.

Obviously the local board of education will succeed in improving the program of the schools only by holding the professional staff responsible for studying the needs of the local community and for recommending changes in the program. To this end the board will encourage, even require, the use of thoroly democratic procedures in the professional staff. The board will further expect the staff to secure wide community participation in studying needs and making recommendations for improvement. Parents and students will share in the process. This major responsibility of the board will never be finished. It will require continuous attention and much time. The board of education must stimulate and direct the work of the staff and the community thru its chief executive officer, the superintendent of schools. But the board itself must determine all basic policies. This function of control of the educational program should never be delegated. It cannot be performed by perfunctory approval of recommendations received from the staff. It involves careful study and weighing of all factors.

Signposts for Service . . .

★ *Public relations build confidence in the efficiency of the schools, create a new faith in knowledge and its uses, and preserve trust in the integrity of the board.*

★ *Good schools are the foundation of desirable public relations. Attempting to save a poor system by launching an elaborate public relations program is like trying to put paint on a wet wall.*

★ *Public-spirited individuals make successful school board members when they seek not only to build goodwill but to avoid the development of ill will.*

★ *Public relations are dependent upon recognition of the value of cooperative action and desire for the satisfactions of achieving together.*

★ *A policy of treating all employees as human beings, giving them that essential recognition of worth that every person needs and has a right to expect, pays big dividends in any public relations program.*

★ *Silence regarding the responsibilities of the schools in times of rapid social and economic change is a luxury no board of education can afford.*

★ *Public opinion is one of the most powerful forces in the world. It is, therefore, a force which must be understood by board members who desire to be effective public servants.*

★ *Public relations should point the way to a better world. Altho perfection has not yet been attained, the school is recognized as an instrument in building cooperation within the community, the state, the nation, and the world.*

CHAPTER VIII

School Board and Public Relations

ELECTION OR APPOINTMENT as a member of the board of education is a signal honor. It should be a source of great personal satisfaction to every individual so chosen, for it is an expression of trust and confidence in him as a representative of the people. His acceptance of the responsibilities entailed, in most cases without financial compensation, is indicative of his interest in public welfare and his willingness to give time and energy to the public good. As a school board member he becomes a director in a business which performs one of the most vital functions in a democracy, but, because it is supported by taxes from a vast number of people and because its officials and employees are looked upon as public servants, he may find that what he does is subjected to constant scrutiny and ofttimes severe criticism.

Education is charged with the responsibility of creating a new faith in knowledge and its uses. There is always the hue and cry for changes in educational policy harking back to "the good old days." In the postwar period many will clamor for changes to fit a new world. Few, if any, of the patrons of the public schools will be interested in the *status quo*.

No matter how effectively a school system may be operated, boards of education must be constantly alert to the necessity of providing for adequate defense against, or prevention of, organized attacks on public education as inevitable changes take place. The best defense is the development of an understanding of the problems and needs of education and the creation of a feeling of responsibility for the success of education on the part of the general public. In some instances efforts made by boards of education to win community backing have been sporadic, carelessly planned, and ineffective. Because board members were chosen by popular election, others take it for granted that they represent public opinion and it is therefore unnecessary to keep a finger on the pulse of community thinking. The majority, however, are keenly aware of the necessity of carrying their clientele with them.

A united public simplifies the task greatly. Few communities

have escaped periods, however, during which the public has become extremely vocal, dividing into groups highly emotionalized and dangerous to the interests of the schools. The sincerity of such groups can seldom, if ever, be questioned, for people are vitally interested in their children at all times. The broad discretionary powers exercised by boards of education are certain, however, to arouse suspicion when a parent or patron feels that an injustice has been done.

Perhaps it is too much to expect that the public will always agree with board members or that they can constantly maintain confidence in and respect for their acts. Nevertheless, election or appointment of an individual to the board immediately labels him as a representative of the people. He should not be alarmed if his attitudes and opinions differ from those of other members of the board or the community as long as he recognizes that "public relations constitute a two-way street." To obtain understanding, goodwill, and respect for the schools, he must offer understanding, goodwill, and respect to the public. It has also been said of the board member that "he should carry an 'oil can' in place of a 'monkey wrench' "—a slogan worth serious consideration.

Problems Confronting Beginners

Obviously, there is no set pattern for establishing or maintaining a program of public relations. Whatever circumstances may prevail it is the duty of a board member to rise above personalities and to avoid uncritical acceptance of group pressures, keeping in mind that he represents at all times the entire community and that the schools are being maintained for the benefit of all his publics, not for any one or portion of one which becomes more vocal or more aggressive than the others. He must at all times strive to build and maintain the public's confidence in the board, in the teachers, in the noncertificated employees, and in the work of the schools. His relations with other board members, with school employees, and with his publics should be marked by frankness, confidence, and sincerity.

One infallible concept of a sound public relations program is found in the philosophy that proper relations rest primarily upon doing the job right. There is no "bag of tricks," no legerdemain that can be substituted for the basic element of being aware of

what the public needs in the way of education and making every effort to meet those needs efficiently and honestly. What every community wants out of the maze of intricate organization characteristic of school systems is a balanced and harmonious effect on the child and the community. The greatest success in securing desirable results can be realized only by keeping the processes of operation in their proper relationships.

FOUR HUNDRED THOUSAND APPROACHES TO PUBLIC SERVICE

In all the world there are no two individuals who are exactly alike. Man has used this truism to advantage for purposes of identification, but its greatest utility lies in the fact that it protects the human race from the monotony of a colorless existence. With all humanity differing, one from the other, physically, mentally, and spiritually, it is not to be expected that members of boards of education will think or act exactly alike under every circumstance. Approximately four hundred thousand personalities bring to boards of education four hundred thousand backgrounds of experience, patterns of thinking, and other characteristics fixed by individual working habits. It is not surprising, therefore, that incentives for seeking board membership are widely varied and in many instances contradictory. Every community can supply a list of "planks" in the campaign platforms of aspiring board members to illustrate this point.

The importance of the motives for candidacy in a school board member is discussed in Chapter II, "School Boards in Representative Government." Since each candidate is likely to be controlled to a large extent by these personal factors it is reasonable to expect that the public relations of the school may be materially affected by them both before and after the election. It is not too difficult to discover whether such motives are likely to cause harmony or discord. In order that every community may be prepared to cope with this problem the following list is suggested as indicative of the range of motives which indicate why individuals become board members:

1. To register approval or disapproval of the work of the school
2. To affect curriculum changes or to prevent them
3. To protect education from undesirable influences, with opinions as to what is desirable or undesirable varying greatly
4. To sponsor a building program or to defeat a proposed bond issue

5. To eliminate the fads and frills of education, according to widely differing definitions as to what is included in this category
6. To fight "isms" that may be very real in the mind of the individual whether they exist in the school system or not
7. To encourage the teaching of citizenship by introducing a course in patriotism, by teaching the evils of narcotics, or by convincing youth that crime does not pay
8. To correct the lack of discipline or overcome the evil effects of too much discipline, the approach depending primarily upon the experience which brought the matter to the individual's attention
9. To promote athletics or reduce it to its proper proportions
10. To expand the educational program or to curtail extravagance
11. To get a name before the public as the first step in a political career
12. To make the board a representative body by the election of a woman, a lawyer, a doctor, a banker, a farmer, or some other "representative" person
13. To find out "what it is all about" or to dictate "how it should be done"
14. To change salary schedules by raising or lowering salaries
15. To protect the taxpayer's interests by reducing taxes or by seeing that he gets his money's worth
16. To accept responsibility with the ideal of public service.

Any gradation from one extreme to the other may be indicative of the viewpoint of a given individual. To bring these widely varying approaches into harmony is a first requisite for a successful program of public relations.

DRAFTED BECAUSE OF REPUTATION AS A CIVIC LEADER

Only public-spirited individuals imbued with a generous spirit of service are likely to be attracted to membership on the board of education. Occasionally a person who has "an axe to grind" or one who has been selected by a pressure group seeks the position, but experience has shown that the individual who serves best is the one who has to be persuaded to run by popular demand. Such a person, chosen because of his civic-mindedness and his reputation as a community leader, has little to fear from the standpoint of public relations. His experience in other community enterprises has taught him to cope with every situation in such a manner as to command the respect of his fellow men. Altho his responsibilities as a board member are great, the fact that he has been "drafted" for the job indicates that the faith of the community in him is greater. Choosing a person capable of protecting the educational interests of the boys and girls of the

community is the best way to insure proper relationships between the school and the public.

SCHOOLS SHOULD BE RUN ON A BUSINESSLIKE BASIS

The clarion call for "business" methods has been sounded from coast to coast and from border to border. It has been used to persuade many a successful businessman that the welfare of the community is dependent upon his acceptance of a position on the school board. It is a positive statement, to be accepted at face value by all interested in education, yet most persons read into it the implication that incumbent board members and school administrators have been negligent or perhaps ignorant in this respect. Unfortunately, there were a good many instances of poor business management some years ago and there is still room for improvement in some localities, but the development of uniform accounting systems and the more adequate training of school administrators have largely removed the hazard. (See Chapter VI.)

No matter how successful the new board member may have been in his own line of business, he will in all probability find himself in the same position as myriads of other men and women who have in all honesty confessed that their first board meeting was a revelation. Duties of which he has never dreamed and for which he has had no training will at first hinder the full exercise of his powers as a leader. He must learn that he is embarking upon a new career and that it will take time to determine what real influence he should exert on the school and the community.

Nowhere has a comprehensive plan for the "in-service" training of new board members been developed. Apparently, it has been taken for granted that the neophyte would learn the hard way, by experience, and as a result much time is lost. Any board member who learns the facts about his powers, duties, limitations, and opportunities can, by the exercise of his own good judgment and his desire to be of public service, become an effective board member in a comparatively short time. The board member who "knows all the answers," however, before he takes his oath of office, is usually the one who discovers after a year or two of muddling that it has taken a long time for him to understand thoroly and to appreciate the traditions and the policies of the school or to comprehend his true function as a board member.

AN ECONOMY PLATFORM

A so-called economy platform is a real vote-getter in years of financial distress, but if substantial reductions are not forthcoming public relations may become an acute problem. Free public education costs money and most communities get about what they pay for. Obviously, extravagance and waste (if they exist) must be eliminated, and the board member who succeeds in "plugging the leak" will win acclaim from his supporters. The new member who is elected on any kind of platform rather than as a free agent should not be surprised, however, if he suffers, in short order, a surprising number of headaches for which there seems to be no palliative. Frequently the cry goes out over the land to cut out the fads and frills in education. Echoed from North to South and from East to West, it becomes almost a byword with the public in general. Firmly fixed in the minds of the people, it finds expression in school elections, public gatherings, the radio, the press, and numerous other agencies. Altho economy measures may be recognized as imperative by both friend and foe, in the frenzy of mass excitement the community ofttimes fails to distinguish between true economy and wanton destruction. Unfortunately the first school functions to shrivel under the hot blasts of economy are likely to be those possessing the greatest promise of creating a citizenry capable of meeting the responsibilities of a new world.

Life has become more complex in its demands. An enriched program to meet these demands has been the inevitable result. Pledged to economy, a new board member is likely to find that preparation for civic-social responsibility and for occupational efficiency demands an expansion of educational facilities rather than retrenchment. Ox-cart drivers cannot control civilization as we speed ahead. The development of a technological age does not mean that we should continually add to our educational offerings and take nothing away. There is no question that the educational tree needs some pruning. There may be a few dead branches that should be cut off entirely. The fads and frills which are usually attacked most vigorously, however, are not the dead branches but the most tender shoots of a growing tree. The economy-minded board member, therefore, will be wise if he determines first what kind of branch it is before he starts to prune.

Dissatisfaction with educational policies frequently grows out of a lack of understanding of what the community is getting for its money. Most board members elected on an economy platform are likely to be confused when confronted with the educational jargon with which academic problems are cloaked. They frequently find it much easier to concentrate their efforts on bills, cost of supplies, maintenance, and repairs than to delve into the much more vital things that go on in the classroom. For this reason they usually discover little in the way of possible economies since, with a few glaring exceptions, most school administrators are from necessity the best "dollar stretchers" in public office. Perhaps the reason this requisite skill is not generally recognized is because educators have not realized that part of their job is selling their wares to the laymen. If such is the case, the board of education should give the superintendent the opportunity to enlighten the community as to his methods and purposes and should support him in his program. Actually, the experiences of an economy-minded individual may be a far cry from what was anticipated when as a candidate he was campaigning for election, but his adjustment to the situation will have much to do with his public relations after he becomes a member of the board, if we concede that most community-minded citizens are willing to pay a reasonable price for a sound educational program.

VICTIMS OF A "CLEAN SWEEP"

On numerous occasions public sentiment is aroused to a point where, aided and abetted by resignations in addition to the expiration of terms of office, an entire board or its majority is replaced by new members. Such a situation may arise for a variety of reasons, many of them legitimate. There are times, however, when this "upsetting of the apple-cart" is the outgrowth of misunderstandings or lack of confidence. Regardless of the circumstances, the community responsible for the "clean sweep" expects immediate action. The new board finds itself dumped unceremoniously into a pool of educational problems for which it has had little or no preparation and no background of experience. It is likely to possess only vague knowledge of its legal powers and duties. Innocent and enthusiastic in its ignorance of what "makes a school tick," such a board is almost certain to make many mis-

takes that the guidance of experienced board members would have prevented.

A clash over personalities, a fight over the selection of a school site, disagreement between urban and rural areas in the district, a premeditated plan to catch the community asleep and create a "new deal" in education—these are but a few of the excuses used for ousting a board of education. In most cases such drastic measures would have been unnecessary if the administration and board members had made a reasonable effort to alleviate misunderstandings and fears. Refusal to listen to the other side and failure to compromise frequently lead to disaster, with boys and girls suffering the consequences.

The election of a "clean sweep" board, after other measures have failed, *can* be a good omen. The success of such a venture, however, depends entirely upon the degree of confidence the new board inspires. Sincerity of purpose and the intelligence of its approach to the problems to be solved can save the day, while failure will be the penalty if any one group or public is placated at the expense of others. No situation calls for greater skill in the establishment of friendly public relations. No situation calls for more mutual respect and cooperation between the board and the superintendent, as described in Chapter III.

CHANGING THE TRADITIONAL POLICIES OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

Since its inception, public education has suffered from the growing pains of changing philosophies and general development. Today in a chaotic and complex world, when education is being asked to save humanity from all the deficiencies of the past and the failures of the present as well as to create a panacea for the future, it is only natural that differences of opinion should arise and that personal prejudices and the animosities of various pressure groups should find expression in school board elections. The board member who runs on a preelection platform designed to scrap all or most of the policies of the school in the vague hope that something new can be drawn out of the hat to reduce the variety and the acuteness of the problems facing education is likely to be disappointed. There is no magic which can take the place of the complete elimination of prejudices and the subsequent adoption of a strictly nonpersonal, nonpressure-group approach to school issues.

By no other method can we hope to produce the best system of education for American youth.

DESIRE FOR PERSONAL GAIN

Numerous advantages, either real or imaginary, have prompted individuals to seek public office. Altho service as a board member is in most cases without monetary remuneration, the possibility of personal gain occasionally furnishes the motive for an individual's decision to run for that office. The housewife and mother who was asked why she wanted to be on the board since she was not "in any business" is not an isolated example. Even tho the motive is as harmless as the desire to get one's name before the public, such an attitude on the part of a candidate may have a decided effect upon the public relations of the school. Abuses perpetrated by boards of education in years past have led to the establishment of legal restrictions in many states to discourage the search for personal gain. Since most board members in the United States must now serve without pay, losses to the educational program thru the misguided motives of personal financial gain have been kept at a minimum. Personal gain thru the control of patronage is still a factor with which some boards of education must wrestle, however, if they would avoid situations in which public relations are strained to the breaking point.

On the other hand, there are many sincere, honest, and capable individuals who seek positions on boards of education and render efficient and faithful service to the children, the parents, and the public with the full realization that the prestige which such service gives them in their community is, in effect, a personal gain. The faith of a community in the wisdom and integrity of a public servant is something which money cannot buy. Personal or professional gains growing out of such a faith are little enough compensation for the type of service rendered. The very absence of self-glorification in such a member is what makes him great. He has little trouble with his public relations.

ELECTION OR APPOINTMENT TO OPPOSE SOME PERSONALITY ON THE BOARD OR ON THE SCHOOL STAFF

Invariably there are at least two sides in a fight involving personalities. During the heat of battle, however, many communities have lost their sense of direction in a barrage of expletives. A

majority of these community-splitting episodes could be avoided if proper relationships are maintained, but many "hot" issues have been taken to the polls simply because everyone involved knew he was right. Such stubbornness can be laid in the laps of both the schoolmen and the board members, and at times on the doorstep of the public itself. It is a foregone conclusion that any dominating individual whose service to the schools will not stand open scrutiny should be replaced. Great care should be exercised, however, to be sure that the real cause of the conflict and confusion will be removed along with the incumbent. Whether the fault lies with the accuser, the accused, or the community must be determined with a high degree of accuracy before satisfactory results can be obtained.

To avoid undesirable public reactions in times of rapid social and economic change, it must be recognized that schools cannot afford the luxury of silence regarding the responsibilities mapped out for them by these changes. Proper relationships can be maintained only when the schools carry their communities with them. It will not suffice to say that educators and board members have, on the whole, been so busy ministering to the needs of boys and girls that they have not had time to explain their ideas to those who sit in judgment. The job of acquainting the public with the program of the schools must be carried on continuously and must be an integral part of the total educational program. Uninformed communities may grumble for a while before taking adverse action, but unless something is done to establish proper public relations, complete misunderstanding and lack of confidence are inevitable.

Policies in Building Public Understanding

The public with which boards of education must deal consists of persons possessed with a strange mixture of selfishness and generosity, prejudice and understanding, ignorance and knowledge, fear and hope, laziness and energy, together with numerous other extremes characteristic of normal human beings.

ACCEPTING SERIOUSLY THE DEMOCRATIC PRINCIPLES

The lay board of education is the keystone of the organized public school in democratic America. As such it is the duty of the board to avoid becoming so deeply involved in minutiae that

it can give little or no attention to cooperative planning. Every board should resolutely, intelligently, and continually address itself to the future, seeking at all times the guidance of qualified and active professional leadership; inviting and encouraging the participation of administrators, teachers, noncertificated employees, parents, and patrons in formulating school policies; and working with them, as often as possible, in setting up procedures for handling routine matters affecting human relationships.

Employees can scarcely be expected to receive with enthusiasm the announcement of radical changes in the school program or decisions materially affecting their contractual relations with the district if their first introduction to such changes comes from the morning edition of the newspaper. Frequently they possess much valuable information regarding problems facing the school district which should be utilized in determining the proper course of action. Likewise, students, parents, taxpayers, public-spirited civic groups, and other highly ethical and important organizations are in a position to function effectively as a cooperating agency in the planning of an adequate school program if they are given the chance. Few will fail to realize that the privilege of sharing in the formulation of educational policies carries with it a corresponding share in the responsibility for the successful application of these policies to the work of the school. Without such cooperative effort the most constructive program may be destined to fail. Accepting seriously the democratic principles in the organized public school is an ideal way to establish a pattern for a practical, workable democracy in other circles.

Personal Opinion versus Public Opinion

George Gallup rates public opinion as one of the most powerful forces in the world. It can help or hinder a board member's plan for better educational opportunities for the children of his community. To a large extent it can control his effectiveness as a public servant. It is, therefore, a force which must be understood.

To be successful the board member must learn what all of his publics think, not just the men in his own club, the persons in the group sponsoring his candidacy, those in his church, his lodge, his neighborhood, or his business office. Those groups with which the individual member is normally closely associated should never

be considered infallible; neither should they be his sole source of information. Close associates are quite likely to say only what the board member would like to hear, while other organizations may be plotting to bring about a change of which he is unaware. If he would obtain an accurate measure of public opinion, whether favorable or unfavorable, it is essential that the board member discover, if possible, what all groups are thinking, both inside and outside his social circle.

PUBLIC RELATIONS INVOLVE MORE THAN PUBLICITY

A successful program of public relations is much broader than is commonly conceived. It seeks not only to build goodwill but also to avoid the development of ill will. In any public relations problem the first requirement is to get the facts, all of them, and from the most reliable sources available. The board of education must be just as much interested in finding out the mistakes that have been made, and why, as it is in discovering where the school system excels and for what reasons. The solution of any school problem should be based upon facts, whether it is in agreement with the views of the individual members of the board or not.

A barrage of publicity launched by a board of education, or its press agent, or public relations officer for the purpose of presenting only the favorable side of educational matters is certain to irritate many persons, particularly those whose school relationships are already somewhat strained. Publicity is profitable only if it develops closer harmony between the school and the community. Publicity reflecting personal prejudices or resorting to the imagination in describing objectives never attained is valueless. Such publicity is a waste of time, effort, and money which could be usefully applied to other relationships with the public. Altho boards of education have, on the whole, been entirely too restricted in the amount of publicity they have used, a rather high percentage of that utilized in the past has been ill-advised, uninteresting, and ineffective. On occasion publicity has been used as a smoke screen to hide conditions likely to meet with community disapproval. Evasive measures of this type can scarcely be considered good public relations. They are likely to "backfire" without warning.

It should be remembered that the attitude of people toward the schools can change for reasons having nothing to do with the

school as an institution or with the board of education as a representative body. War, eras of peace, hard times, and prosperity all have their effect upon the school's public relations. When such absorbing, nonschool interests prevail, no amount of school publicity, without corresponding service to the community, will be adequate for the maintenance of proper relationships between the school board and the stockholders who support the schools by their taxes.

BOARD MEMBERS MUST KNOW PUBLIC

Americans are noted for their native intelligence, and the board member should never underrate their ability to think. If the people of any community are given suitable information with which to work, they will usually arrive at sound judgments. On the other hand, every board of education should avoid overrating the amount of information the various publics possess. A surprisingly large number of rank-and-file citizens have little knowledge of the school system as a whole. The board member who would be successful in his public relations must, therefore, define the areas of public ignorance, find out in what groups and on what subjects there is too little knowledge to form sound opinions, and make available the necessary information to fill in these gaps.

The approach to the president of a large corporation should usually be made in a manner quite different from the approach to the mother who operates a machine in a garment factory. In other words, the total population served by a board member is divided into many publics. Some may consist of groups comparable economically and inclined to think, vote, and act somewhat alike. Other groups may represent a diversity of conditions, including geographic locations, sex, age, occupation, profession, and civic organization. Still others may be drawn together by common interests; by emergencies, real or imaginary; or by the capricious vagaries of common gossip. All together they will include the chamber of commerce, labor groups, taxpayers associations, ministerial associations, parent-teacher associations, neighborhood groups, veterans organizations, women's clubs, luncheon clubs, fraternal groups, church groups, and a hundred and one other varieties; yet not one of them could be said to represent the mythical "general

public." Each group has its own peculiar interests in education and its own designs for their promotion.

In approaching any of his publics the successful board member must be honest, respectful of personalities, and frank in his dealings. Most publics are willing to accept the responsibilities incident to the operation of a successful school system if approached in the right manner.

WORKING FOR THE SCHOOL

Whether membership on the board of education brings satisfaction to the individual and profit to the school depends largely upon the manner in which the member prepares himself to carry his full share of the responsibility for establishing and maintaining a good school system and for promoting a sound public relations program.

Regardless of the relative size of the district there are certain functions to be performed by every new board member in preparation for this service to the schools:

1. A new board member should determine what his predecessors have actually done in the way of policy-making and planning by examining the minutes of previous board meetings. Having familiarized himself with these records, he should study any reports which have been made by former boards, by their executive officers, or the school staff.

2. Possession of factual knowledge will place him in a position to utilize effectively contacts with those members of the board or employees of the school district who know the most about the kind of a job he is supposed to do. Their advice and counsel should be solicited and a wise board member will heed their suggestions.

3. Practically every board member, new or old, enjoys at least a speaking acquaintance with many influential citizens. He can spot rather easily those individuals who have the reputation of being "for" the best interests of the community as a whole. He will find these individuals not only approachable but anxious to help him in the transaction of his duties as a board member. He should consult with them often since they constitute a good barometer of the best thinking of the community. Thru frequent contact with such influential persons the board member may become alert to untruths or misinformation circulating in his community thru that vehicle of information known as gossip. The best antidote for malicious gossip is to keep the public well informed. Truths spread by community leaders will play a more important part in stopping misinformation at its source than would denial on the part of the board of education or any employee of the schools. Altho extreme care should be exercised to prevent influential citizens from dominating the schools, establishing rapport and mutual understanding with such leaders is equivalent to reaching scores of

individuals in the community who depend upon them for guidance and counsel.

4. The board member who acknowledges promptly any service rendered in the development of a strong school system will be surprised at the magical effect of this courtesy upon the school's public relations. On the other hand, the board member who fails to give credit where credit is due, who approaches his job with a closed mind, is likely to find himself harassed and tormented by the problems arising from his relationship with the public he is supposed to represent.

5. There is no substitute for regular attendance. Faithful observance of duty together with attendance thruout the entire session at every meeting of the board is the responsibility of each board member. The chronic absentee, the habitual latecomer, or the busy individual who must "jump and run" before the meeting is half over can scarcely be classified as an asset to a school system. Partial knowledge of what is going on is frequently a dangerous thing. It is not always possible for the board to review each step taken during the temporary absence of a member. When such absence is unavoidable the conscientious member must thoroly digest the minutes of the meeting and be prepared to ask questions regarding any matters not clearly defined before passing judgment upon the work of his colleagues.

Relationships in the big cities—Altho most suggestions for school board members apply equally well in communities of varying size, it should be recognized that the amount of planning and administration necessary for the operation of a city-school system is proportionately greater. The number of interests involved are legion and the public is farther removed from the inner workings of the system than in the smaller community. It may take many months for the board member to become adept at carrying the responsibilities the position places upon him. In this respect a great deal depends upon the individual, however, for it is amazing how quickly capable citizens, when elected to the board of education, can adjust themselves to the seemingly big, unwieldy administrative machinery of the city-school system. In addition to the usual sources of information found in a smaller community, the city board member will have access to a competent administrative and supervisory staff, willing and able to be his principal source of guidance and counsel.

It is no small task to discharge the responsibility for planning, to create an atmosphere in which creative planning can flourish, to cultivate public opinion to a point where it will accept such planning, and to set up the machinery for the collection of facts in an amount sufficient to insure accuracy in interpretations. Yet no board of education will be able to find sufficient time actually to

study the needs of the community without the knowledge and freedom growing out of such a procedure. Planning, when properly done, makes it possible for a school to do at least a few things with certainty. It helps maintain the morale of school employees, promotes the goodwill of the community, and contributes much to public understanding.

Small town or village relationships—Many citizens in a small town or village are sincere in their belief that they know everything there is to know about their school system. Election or appointment of such a citizen to the board of education might conceivably be merely a routine matter, in his estimation. There are several reasons why he is justified in thinking that he is thoroly qualified, on the day he takes his oath of office, to participate freely in the adoption of policies or in making decisions which may be far-reaching in their effect upon the children and the community. Such confidence is quite natural and he is not to be condemned for his overoptimism. In all probability, however, he will soon discover that his background of knowledge is quite inadequate for the job he is expected to do and he will be appalled by the magnitude of the responsibility entailed.

Technics of Public Relations

Our schools are the bulwark of democracy, the foundation of the American way of life. What happens to them depends largely upon what happens to public opinion. The underpinnings of a sound school system are constructed not upon natural and human weaknesses but upon the finer attributes of truth, knowledge, and understanding. The board of education which recognizes the necessity of developing an intelligent program of public relations based upon these qualifications will bring to its school system progress and happiness.

Starting with a simple situation in the early beginnings of schools in this country, organization and operating methods have now come to be exceedingly complex. In the old New England town meeting to which all citizens felt at liberty to come and in the actions of which they had a right to take part, there was no need for a program of public relations as such. The development of our centers of population, bringing with it a demand upon the schools to meet a wide range of social needs, and requiring not only a large amount

of personal service but extremely technical abilities as well, has rendered absolutely impossible the old type of school control. With respect to the fact that the people of a community want educational advantages for their children the situation has not changed, but with the disappearance of town meetings they are no longer able to participate personally in the development of this program. Therefore the people in general are demanding, and have a right to expect, information which will enable them to determine what influences are at work which affect the efficiency of the school system and what reasons there are for confidence in the public servants who control the destiny of their boys and girls.

Many city boards of education have sought a solution to the problem of developing an adequate program of public relations by employing persons in the field of public relations who operate under the direct supervision of the superintendent. In other school systems teachers are sometimes relieved from varying amounts of teaching time in order that they may prepare public relations materials. The provision of personal service possessing the required technical skill to provide a public relations program has, however, been hopelessly inadequate or entirely lacking in a majority of our school systems. Every board of education should give serious consideration to the adoption of a policy providing the amount and kind of such service the size of the district will justify. While board members have no direct responsibility for the execution of duties assigned to a public relations employee, what they do as a board or as individuals will have much to do with the success or failure of any program of public relations they may authorize.

OPEN MEETINGS

Every board of education should operate as a board rather than as individuals. This can be done officially only in regular meetings provided by law or in such special meetings as may be required. The business coming before the board is community business and therefore should be transacted in public. While there may be certain problems to be discussed only in executive session, for the personal welfare of the individuals involved, such sessions should be kept at an absolute minimum if the board is to have the support and confidence of the public.

United action can be attained in most boards only as a result of

careful consideration and discussion conducted under conditions free from strain and pressure. The committee of the whole, described in Chapter IV, is one of the best devices now in use for introducing an atmosphere of calmness and dignity in the regular meeting of the board. Employees, patrons, parents, interested spectators, loyal supporters, or even the severest critics will be impressed by the privilege of standing in the presence of a board which approaches each problem with a confidence that commands respect.

A cordial welcome extended to every citizen to attend official board meetings as often as possible rather than wait until he has some grievance to present will do much to remove suspicion. There is no better way to gain the support of the public than by means of the "open door." Such a policy invites the interest and the participation of the public in those activities which determine the kind of school system the community will have. To further encourage public interest in its activities the board should hold its meetings in a tastefully furnished room rather than the back room of a drugstore, the office of a lumber yard, or some other out-of-the-way place. An attractive room lends itself readily to the maintenance of proper relationships with those who seek a hearing. The time and place of the meetings should be thoroly publicized, and every visitor should be treated with such consideration as to develop in him a desire to promote and to participate in good public-school relations regardless of any differences of opinion that may be expressed. The press should not only be invited but should be urged to send at least one representative in order that a firsthand story may be made available to patrons who find it impossible to attend. Reports of the committee of the whole containing essential information should be very much in evidence. These and other "little things" will tend to emphasize the importance of the business at hand and will have a profound effect upon the personal relations of board members and patrons.

SCHOOL PUBLICATIONS

From the one-room school to the largest city system various forms of written or printed matter constitute a major portion of the actual contact between the school and the community. By the use of the homeroom *Reporter,* the fifth-grade *Chronicle,* the high-school newspaper, the report card, letters to parents, research bul-

letins, annual reports, posters, folders, certificates, and other forms, every school system, regardless of size, is attempting to interpret its work to the public. In too many instances the board of education has taken little or no interest in these essential agencies for establishing proper school-community relationships. In some cases the board has actually discouraged the effective use of many of these instruments thru failure to provide the necessary facilities, adequate financial support, or the encouragement its trained personnel needs to do the job as it should be done.

It is evident that much of the publicity going out from the school is routinized to the point where few persons pay any attention to it. Whether the material is written, hectographed, mimeographed, monolithed, or printed, boards of education should recognize the potency of this method of establishing rapport between the schools and the community. Altho board members will seldom, if ever, take an active part in the actual preparation of the materials used in such publications, they should be vitally interested in the timeliness, the interpretive purpose, the practicality, and the attractiveness of all publicity going out from any school, since it will affect either positively or negatively the entire public relations program.

It is not the purpose of this chapter to discuss in detail the forms of annual reports; financial statements; house organs; printed, duplicated, or mimeographed materials; and surveys designed to produce the best results. It is intended that boards of education should recognize this type of contact, namely, school publications, as one of its most important interpretive instruments. It is also essential that boards encourage and assist their employees in modernizing school publications, adjusting them to current commercial standards, thereby increasing their effectiveness. Special consideration should be given to the newer types of school reports which are appearing in increasing numbers. Color harmony, attractive design, extensive use of pictures, and literary appeal have produced an appetizing form which makes them invaluable as public relations material. They are deserving of much wider circulation than is possible with the limited funds provided for this purpose in cities where they have been published. It is imperative that a reasonable share of the total school budget be allocated to various forms of public relations work, and from this allocation there should

be a larger allotment of money for the production of the annual report.

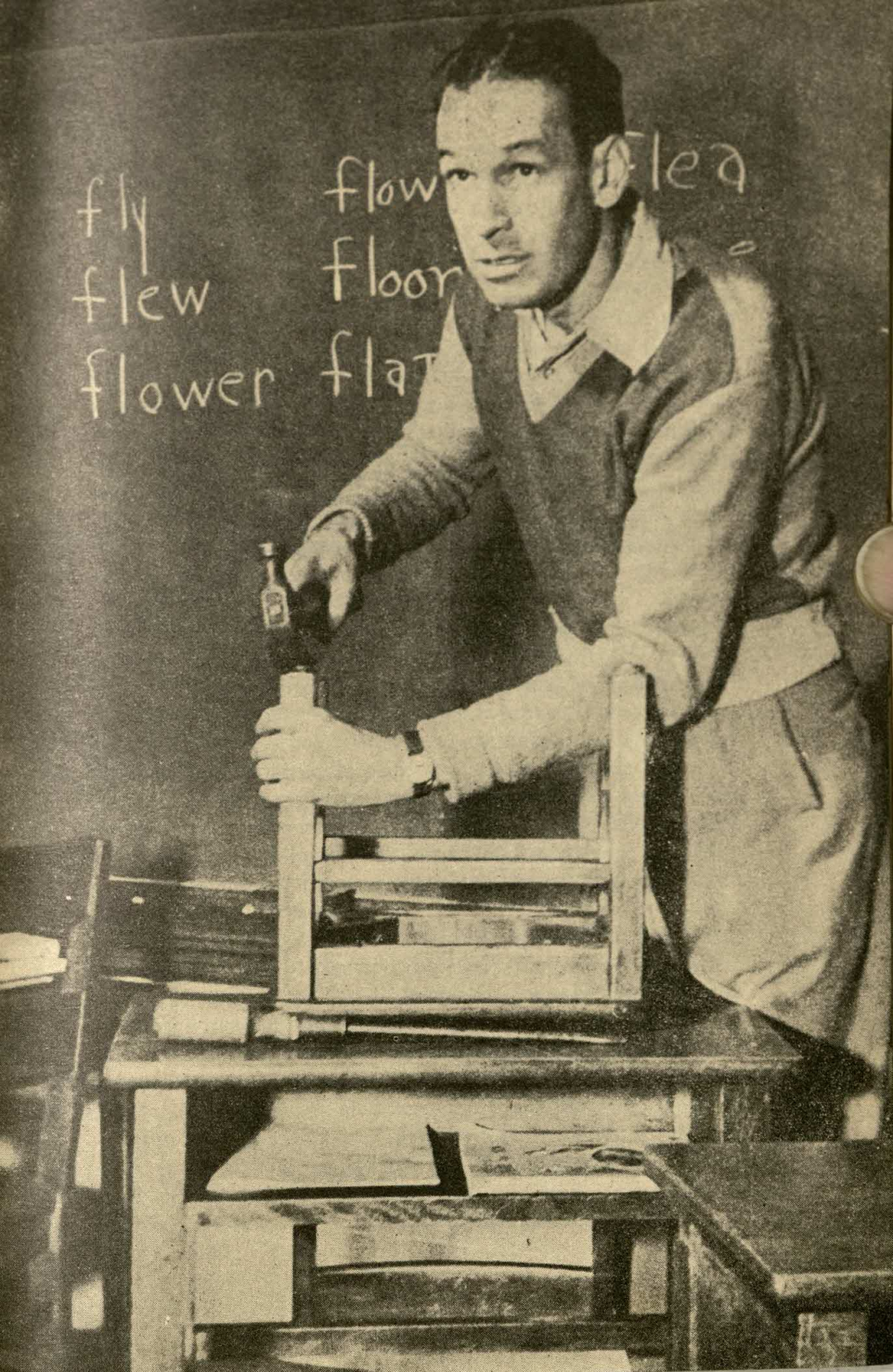
There is no hard and fast set of rules to be applied to the publications of any school system. The extent to which the various mediums of communication are used will depend largely upon the size of the district and the number and type of the problems faced by the district. Under certain circumstances the number of publications issued by a district for consumption within the community may reach a sizable figure. On the other hand, too much interpretive material may at times convey the idea that the board is trying to high-pressure the community into doing something it would not be willing otherwise to accept. It is the duty of each board to interest itself in determining the type and quantity of these materials necessary to meet the needs of its community.

On the whole, mechanical standardization of school publications will, thru the process of constant repetition, reduce their effectiveness as public relations instruments. The publication of most documents now issued by school districts is a more or less expensive process. The expense can be justified only when there is reasonable assurance that the materials are prepared in a manner and will be circulated on a basis which will make them effective as interpretive instruments and helpful as mediums for the establishment of an *esprit de corps* between the school and the community. Stuffy, dry-as-dust reports are a waste of the taxpayers' money.

Important as written or printed matter may be, the entire area of school publications should be considered as distinctly supplementary to personal contact. Whether employing the printed or the pictured story, such publications are important only so far as they stimulate an increased understanding of the magnitude of the task the schools must perform and draw the board and the public into a closer personal relationship.

THE PRESS

A friendly press is one of the greatest assets a board of education can have in its attempt to build good public relations. If the local or county newspaper is favorable toward the schools, the community will usually be satisfied with the work of the board. On the other hand, a paper which vigorously campaigns against the general


fly
flew
flower
flow
floor
flea

CUSTODIANS—*provide for the comfort and safety of others. Assisted by mechanics and other employees, they keep buildings in repair, saving the taxpayers' money and safeguarding the welfare of children and teachers.*

Photograph by
Rebecca Snyder, New York, New York

policies of the board or against any personality on the board or employed by the board can make harmony practically impossible.

Since the public is not accustomed to attending board meetings regularly it is highly essential that all matters of importance be reported to the newspapers serving the community. Whenever possible this should be done by a reporter who attends the meetings regularly, but if the newspaper is not represented it is the responsibility of the board and the superintendent to see that the editor receives a complete report of all that transpires at each meeting.

Some board members object to reporters being present at their meetings because they feel that the stories appearing in the paper are misleading or that they play up unimportant details and ignore the real, serious business confronting the board—that of educating children and, in many cases, educating adults as well who reside in the community. Frequently, however, dissatisfaction with the press is the direct result of poor management on the part of the board with respect to the method used in conducting its business meetings rather than ineffective or inaccurate reporting. It must be remembered that the primary function of a newspaper is to gather news. The determination of what constitutes news is the prerogative of the press; the determination of what constitutes education is the prerogative of the school. Altho there are times when a newspaper seems to be determined to place a board of education in a compromising position, any board experiencing such open hostility has the privilege and the duty of determining why unfriendly methods of reporting are employed. Then an attempt to arrive at an understanding designed to produce cooperation rather than antagonism can be intelligently made.

No board should expect 100 percent perfection in its relationship with the press. Board members, reporters, and editors are human beings and, despite the best of intentions, controversies may arise and quickly develop into serious conflict. It should be sufficient to warn the new board member that wide differences of opinion and personal disagreement freely expressed in the board meeting are grist for the mill of any alert reporter. If the published report of a board meeting appears to be filled with personalities, if the story seems to be playing against the schools, it is advisable for the board member to look back upon that meeting and determine, if possible, the cause. Was it because (a) the meeting was filled with

vague or illusive statements arousing the curiosity of the reporter instead of being conducted in a logical, dignified manner commanding his interest and respect; (b) some member of the board or of the audience failed to receive the deep consideration which he had a right to expect; (c) business was conducted on a "free for all" basis, drawing personalities into sharp focus at the expense of objective and impersonal discussions; or (d) some decisions were obviously based upon other public or private interests with little or no concern for the general welfare of the schools? If so, do not blame the press.

Conflict with the press may develop, especially in some of the smaller communities, over affairs that have nothing to do with the regular business of the board. Any wrong, real or fancied, which causes a personal disagreement between an individual board member and the editor or publisher of the local paper may, after a period of time, be erroneously attributed to the board of education as a whole, with all persons concerned losing track of the original cause of the difficulty.

It has been said that clashes between personalities and crusades against individuals are considered by newspapermen to be a much more prolific source of news than activities involving general principles which have to do with the education of children. When a board member who has been the subject of a news "blast" retaliates by issuing a statement in a manner which creates a fresh news release, he may be reasonably certain that he has not had the privilege of saying the last word.

While a suggestion that antagonism between the press and boards of education or the members thereof can be completely eliminated might be considered by many as a figment of the imagination, it is nevertheless reasonably certain that harmony is attainable in most circumstances if the persons involved are really interested in good public relations. The board member should recognize that conflict is practically the lifeblood of news. Whenever there is so much as a semblance of strife there is the implication that a story lurks in the background. It is the duty of the press to uncover that story, and in most cases the tale will find its way into print. On the other hand, it should be remembered that no less than two persons or groups are required to develop and maintain a controversy. Frequently recognition of the merits existing on both sides, plus a

frank discussion of the differences involved on an intelligent nonpersonal basis, will effect a permanent settlement of the difficulty.

Let us reiterate here that the business of the board of education is public business. Any individual engaged in such a business must expect to be more or less in the spotlight so far as the press is concerned. He must be able to take criticism of the acts of the board, especially if it is presented on a nonpersonal basis. Before publicly making an issue of any statement with which he disagrees, a board member should recognize the fact that small differences of opinion frequently mark the beginning of controversies which rapidly reach the level of personalities. When aired by the press such differences may easily develop into genuine suspicion and permanent difficulty. As a public servant the board member must practice, not preach, broad-mindedness to the extent that he will meet every situation in a calm, practical, and intelligent manner and will devote all the time and effort at his command to the harmonizing of differences in terms of actual facts rather than emotional legerdemain.

Many boards of education have developed a genuine fear of reporters and have deliberately attempted to withhold news because they believed they could in this manner avoid the spotlight of the press. A more unintelligent approach to the whole problem of public relations could scarcely be imagined, for any board of education unable to solve the problem of its press relationships will probably find it difficult to manage its relationships in other quarters. If the editorial policy of the paper in a given community is consistently unreasonable and prejudicial despite all efforts of the board to effect a cooperative relationship, then the board must find some other means of supplying the intelligent reader with the facts regarding the work of the district in order that he may reach his own conclusions as to the validity of the news presentation. It should be repeated, however, that few differences between the press and the schools are insurmountable.

THE RADIO

Some boards of education have begun to recognize the effectiveness of the radio as an agency in the interpretation of public education, but it has not been used extensively in other than the largest cities. The progressive development of this comparatively new means of communication will in all probability result in sweeping

changes in the type of program used, the division of time between commercial and educational broadcasts, and the choice of time assignments.

In the past, small school districts have been dependent upon privately owned commercial stations for most of their local, state, and national radio services. A majority of these stations have been most generous in their allotment of time for speakers, discussion panels, interviews, and dramatizations planned to bring a direct vocal contact between the school and large numbers of the listening public. In addition, the time devoted to network programs of an educational nature has increased materially in recent years. There is always, however, the problem created by moving such programs to "open" hours, available either because they have proved to be relatively ineffective for commercial broadcasts or because there is a temporary break in the schedule of revenue-producing programs.

Stations belonging to a national hookup may or may not carry educational programs, depending upon their commercial schedules or the insistent demands of large listening groups for other types of programs at hours conflicting with the time desired for the presentation of educational information.

With all of its limitations the potential strength of radio as an agency for the dissemination of educational information and as an instrument of appraisal is something no board of education can afford to overlook. The survival of private radio broadcasting is dependent upon listener appeal and the demands of the audience will determine the distribution of radio time by such stations to programs of varying types. The total time now devoted to educational programs is sufficient, however, to have a direct bearing upon the forming of favorable or unfavorable public opinion in educational matters. As a result, much of the school-community relationships of the present day are colored by ideas projected over the radio.

In those communities dependent entirely upon distant stations for radio services there is much that can be done locally to direct attention to those educational programs which will assist the board of education and the schools in directing the thinking of their supporting public. In many localities the formation of "listening" groups, largely self-directive, has proved effective. Special announcements thru handbills, mimeographed notes, and other mediums of

communication have been used in some districts to call attention to radio programs helpful in school publicity. In this way material for valuable group discussions of local problems has been made available.

In the larger cities where local time is available for educational broadcasts, boards of education should make sure that the opportunity is used in an effective manner. From the standpoint of the listening audience educational presentations are usually most effective if they are each confined to a single idea. In most instances such presentations should be brief and they should always be nonacademic. Speakers should never resort to professional patter or to flights of oratory but should present whatever they have to say in simple, understandable language free from excessive, high-sounding phrases and pedagogic figures of speech. One of the most deadly radio programs from the standpoint of public relations is the one that reels off yards of educational "facts" and highly involved statistics, neither interesting nor informative to the average listener.

Commercial broadcasters are constantly submitting every studio production to a most rigid and cold appraisal. They take nothing for granted. Using every known device to discover how these programs have been accepted, they are constantly developing more effective methods of presentation. The schools have not always kept pace in either the preparation or the presentation of educational radio material. They would do well to give this matter serious attention and should not be averse to seeking the advice of experts in this field.

Boards of education in every city and hamlet should be vitally interested at this time in the possibilities rapidly opening up for education in the field of FM (frequency modulation) radio. The Federal Communications Commission has reserved twenty channels for education. The availability of these additional channels is a challenge as well as a priceless opportunity for hundreds of school systems. The ultimate effect upon every rural one-room school and every village, town, or city school may surpass all expectations. In the following statement the chairman of the Federal Communications Commission places the responsibility directly upon those who manage educational affairs: "If education doesn't want and doesn't need those channels, and if it doesn't prove its desires and needs by

actually making extensive use of them, history is going to repeat itself, and education will again find that it is left with memories of a lost opportunity."

The development of radio in the past twenty-five years should convince every board member that his board cannot begin too early to plan how it will use this new tool. Whether his school will have its own broadcasting station or not, FM radio is destined to affect materially the whole program of education. Its service possibilities include:

1. Rural schools in a county or consolidated district school system
2. Medium-sized cities
3. Extension services
4. Adult education for both cities and rural regions
5. Statewide service thru FM educational networks.

As FM radio moves forward, every school, regardless of size, will probably be a participant either directly or indirectly, in some phase of the program made possible by this new agency. In planning for that time boards of education should be awake to the opportunities it will bring to their own institutions and should be ready to utilize them to the fullest advantage. A substantial number of public-school systems have already made definite plans to construct FM stations as soon as equipment is available, while a few are even now on the air.

Most surprising of all is the rapid spread of interest in planning locations and arrangements for FM stations to provide statewide educational program service. In some states this planning has been finished and a complete network of stations with educational program-production centers is ready to step out of the blueprint stage into reality as soon as equipment is available. Such statewide educational FM networks will enable stations to share their programming burden and to pool the programming resources of the entire area. It would seem that these proposed networks provide sufficient reason for hoping that educational broadcasting will soon reach high levels of competence.

Its effect as an instrumentality to provide parents and patrons with a better understanding of the aims and methods of education prevailing in our public schools cannot be overestimated. Boards of education will certainly want to seize this chance of controlling, on either a local or a statewide basis, or both, this great tool for curri-

culum enrichment and the promotion of truth, knowledge, and understanding, the basis of any sound school public relations program.

SCHOOL VISITATION

For a quarter of a century American Education Week [1] has been observed in school districts thruout the nation. Designed for the purpose of creating an understanding and appreciation of the work of the school on the part of the public, observances of this special week have attracted thousands of parents and patrons annually. In some instances visitors have filed thru the classrooms with a sense of having fulfilled a duty to their children and the teacher, but they have failed to gain the specific knowledge of the how and why of modern education so essential to a comprehensive understanding of the learning processes.

Boards of education should recognize the "open house" as an effective means of conveying to the public a rather complete concept of what is going on. To utilize this fruitful medium for displaying the work of the school in the best possible manner, school districts should not stop with opening the door and inviting people to come in. Members of the board of education should cooperate with the school staff in an effort to determine what the community wants to know about its schools. Programs in PTA groups and other community organizations should be conducted in preparation for what people are going to see and hear when they visit "open house." When the crowd arrives ample facilities should be available to provide for interpreting what is seen, and after it is all over there should be a follow-up to discover the reaction of the public to the entire program.

In addition to the open house schedule, it is essential that every school district devise ways and means of getting the public into the schools as often as circumstances will permit. By bringing members of the community into direct contact with the work of the schools thru the use of clinics, school exhibits, style shows, dad's night programs, hobby shows, recreational, cultural, or vocational adult classes, or any other activity suitable to the group served, a closer relationship between the public and the school will be firmly established. A person who actually visits the school building frequently enough to get acquainted with board members and school personnel is inclined to be a booster rather than a knocker. First-

[1] Details as to dates, topics, and available materials (posters, etc.) can be obtained from the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

hand contacts breed confidence and security, while information acquired by secondhand methods is likely to be misleading and inaccurate.

Dealing with Groups

The various groups with which boards of education must deal may be civic, professional, or social, and they may be organized or unorganized depending upon their character. Whether the community is large or small, the number and influence of such groups will depend largely upon traditional practice. Existing groups will vary widely in their importance in different communities. It is the purpose of this chapter to present only a brief discussion regarding typical groups having material influence upon public relations between the schools and the community, leaving to each board of education the responsibility of making its own application to other types with which it must deal.

BOARD MEMBER'S RELATION TO HIS OWN GROUP

The only safe standard for a board member, old or new, with respect to his relationship to other members is the assumption from the very beginning of a completely objective and wholly impersonal attitude toward each one. Every individual member is a unit and each is engaged in the execution of a vital community project. There is no room in such a setup for either friend or enemy, so far as the business affairs of the schools are concerned.

The successful operation of a board precludes any semblance of conflicts between individuals. Such conflicts are in a majority of cases the product of ignorance, prejudice, or passion. Every member should, until overwhelming evidence convinces him otherwise, consider each fellow member as one who is just as conscientious, intelligent, and community-minded as he is himself. Few board members can be rightfully accused of not recognizing their duties as public servants, and rarely will members be found who are unwilling to carry their full share of responsibility. The board member who is an exception to this rule will, in most cases, be so thoroly understood by his fellow members and by the community that it should be comparatively easy to nullify his effectiveness as a leader and to overcome any harmful influence or power he might seek to develop.

It is the duty of every board of education to build confidence in the integrity of its members and a clear understanding of the

problems which must be solved if the community is to serve best its children. The new member who seeks an ally or two among other board members, either before or after election, in order that he may create a block to champion his cause, destroys such a relationship in record time. Confusion, disorder, bitterness, and strife are the fruits of prejudices and animosities carried into board meetings. The wise board member is one who remembers that acceptance of his election or appointment to serve on the school board carries with it the responsibility of representing the board *in the groups* which sponsored his candidacy rather than insisting upon representing any one group *within* the board. Attempts of outside groups to crack the whip over their representatives on the board will result in gross differences of opinion, misunderstanding, and lack of confidence which will continually hamper the progress of education. Members whose loyalties seem to center outside the board may themselves become the victims of penetrating criticism by groups or by individuals who, being dissatisfied with the educational program, have their own ideas as to how it should be redesigned.

Essential differences of opinion are germane to democratic methods. Thru an objective consideration of these differences the effect of mistakes in judgment is reduced to a minimum. When understanding, appreciation, and tolerance have produced their harmonizing effect, members of the board of education can unanimously agree. Without this harmony within the group itself, proper relationships with other groups can scarcely be anticipated.

THE TEACHER AND OTHER SCHOOL EMPLOYEES

No school can be better than its teachers. Thru their daily contact with the children and an indirect but important contact with the parents and the public, they contribute more than any other group to the process of interpreting the school to the community. The greatest of skill exercised by boards of education in promoting good public relations can scarcely overcome the handicap of indifference or neglect by classroom teachers in the field of primary contacts. It might be possible to overlook other phases of a public relations program without serious results, but the system that overlooks the essential importance of the teacher is headed for trouble.

The time has passed when the teacher is expected to confine his activities to the mechanics of learning found within the four walls

of the classroom. The school of today must function effectively in a modern and complex community. The teacher must, under such circumstances, be far removed from his traditional cloistered existence, must understand the culture in which he lives, and be socially capable of adjusting to his environment. Teacher-child relationships, teacher-parent relationships, and teacher-community relationships determine, to a large extent, the pattern for public relations between the school and the community. Policies established by the board for the election of good teachers, for the promotion of in-service training, and for the maintenance of morale are, therefore, important factors in the school's relationship to the public. Functionally, custodians, bus drivers, lunchroom operators, truant officers, librarians, nurses, or other employees frequently occupy strategic positions in the realm of public relations. In no situation should their importance be minimized.

Good public relations are dependent to a considerable extent upon good personnel relations. In many instances the employees of a school *are the school* in the minds of students, patrons, and the public. Unfair, disgruntled, selfish, callous, or indifferent employees can tear down quickly most of the good public opinion that may have been built up by a public relations minded administrator and board of education. Loyal, sympathetic, intelligent, efficient, contented employees who understand the school's program of community service and are eager to support it are a tremendous asset in developing public confidence, trust, and enthusiasm. One of the first objectives of every board of education should be to build up or rebuild such a staff of employees.

A policy of treating all employees as human beings, giving them that essential recognition of worth that every person needs and has a right to expect, will pay big dividends in the realm of public relations. (See Chapter V.)

THE CHILDREN

The American tradition of free education for a free people has grown out of a feeling on the part of parents that nothing is too good for their children. The happy and contented child and the satisfied parent reflect the effectiveness of any school system. Evidences of discontent, misconduct, or truancy, however, are too frequently the reports brought to the attention of the board.

It is recognized that the school is responsible for furnishing a "place in which to grow," a place embodying the direct conditioning of children for effective, well-balanced citizenship in accordance with the American ideal. The fulfilment of this responsibility is not an easy task. To produce a well-balanced citizenry in a changing world the schools must be in a constant state of flux, yet no board of education can alter the pattern of public education materially until parents and patrons become conscious of the need and show a willingness to support the necessary changes. There are actually times when communities, particularly with respect to extracurriculum activities, unwittingly exploit their children for the sake of community pride or financial gain. If such a condition exists, it is the duty of the board and its employees to take the initiative in educating the public concerning the inadequacies of the program conducted by its schools. A program which is the outgrowth of popular demand and is based upon other than sound educational principles will eventually penalize both the children and the community.

The best basketball team in the county, a band which has won a superior rating, or other achievements of a similar nature may secure for the school what appears to be excellent public relations. These relationships, based upon temporary popularity, can fade in record time with the graduation of a major portion of the team, the loss of the band director to a better job, or other circumstances of a comparatively minor nature. Unless the school's public relations program is built upon something more enduring than events of this type, the depression which follows championships will bring such dissatisfaction that board members will wonder whether they ever had a public relations program. There is value in contests, but excessive emphasis upon the idea of championship can easily put a school in a position where the "tail is wagging the dog." Performance is an important thing, but it can be shown in ways other than interscholastic competition.

The championship ideal is a real danger to the maintenance of suitable public relations over a long period of time. The urge to win frequently diverts the attention of the teacher, the board, and the community away from the real purpose of education. Education for all individuals in terms of native capacities is lost sight of, and the efforts of the school are directed instead toward stimu-

lating and coaching most those who show the greatest promise. No matter whether the exploitation of children originates from interests outside or inside the school, there is generally some selfish motive back of it rather than a wholesome desire for the individual growth and development of each child enrolled in the school. Since the extracurriculum activities are those which have the greatest immediate audience value, they are likely to require the exercise of greater care on the part of the board with respect to its relations with the adult community than do the formal academic activities.

There is something of a paradox in the fact that hundreds of communities are pleading on the one hand for more games, bands to be used in parades, and the like, and on the other hand arguing vociferously that only the three R's are of value in their educational program. Every board should avoid the pitfalls of going to either extreme by giving careful attention to that great body of services which lies between. Board members should keep in mind that in the end public attitude regarding the value of the schools will be determined by the degree of satisfaction derived from the total program. The greater the number of happy and successful children you find in the schools, the more satisfied parents will be found in the district and the greater will be the understanding and support accorded the program of education.

BOARD AND COMMUNITY

The inevitability of changing conditions complicates relations between the school and the community because to a large extent the emotional aspect of "the good old days" still remains in the mind of the typical adult. He sincerely and firmly believes that anything in the curriculum which seeks to adjust itself to modern needs is a sign that the school is "going soft." The time-worn phrase "the schools aren't what they used to be" has been repeated so many times that it has become almost a chant. The question which boards of education must decide is, "Should they be?" The answer is obviously "No!" On the other hand, the board of education that permits or encourages change in the school curriculum without having a thoro knowledge and understanding of modern needs, and without knowing the truth as to whether its school is meeting those needs, will find it difficult to maintain

proper relationships with its supporting public. Every board should determine what the program of education is, what it should be, and whether the community can afford the necessary changes. This requires intelligent discussion of all phases of the problem and frank and full presentation of the facts to the public.

Frequently the community itself is not aware of its needs. Many activities have a popular, tho temporary, appeal which may give school patrons a false sense of security with respect to their educational program. Loyalty to the school is a tradition in so many localities that serious facing of facts is quite likely to be overlooked. If the board senses specific educational needs for which adequate support is required, it is the duty of the board to develop within the community the necessary recognition and understanding of these needs to promote a desire to achieve them. To accomplish this purpose the board must give considerable attention to educational planning that involves more than immediate satisfaction on the part of its patrons.

It is easy for a school district to accept unquestioningly anything bearing the stamp of traditional sufficiency. On the other hand, patrons are likely to look with suspicion upon everything new and, to them, revolutionary. To overcome this natural inertia of the typical community the board must approach the problem of keeping the school abreast of the times by adopting the following measures:

1. Encourage its professional executives and skilled personnel, who are generally ahead of the community in their concept of education, by giving them ample opportunity to develop a basic plan which recognizes the educational problems of the community.

2. Interpret the community to its professional employees in a manner which will permit them to build a program capable of leading the community step by step from where it is to a point where it will accept and support an educational program more closely geared to the life the children must live.

3. Understand the schools. Know what is going on in the classrooms and why. Evaluate the experiences children are getting in terms of today rather than yesterday. Enlist the services of teachers and administrators alike in obtaining a proper interpretation of the traditional pattern of the schools and in determining whether or not the children need an enriched experience for full growth and development in a modern world.

4. Provide the means for the development of a system of keeping the community informed as to the purpose, value, conditions, and needs of the schools.

Many avenues of approach have been discussed in this chapter, but each board of education should keep constantly alert for new methods of promoting the interests of the schools in the community.

5. Develop a philosophy of purpose and achievement with complete elimination of conflicting group interests, personal prejudices, or individual bids for public acclaim.

6. Find compensation in the realization that the board has honestly attempted to meet community needs to the fullest possible extent.

PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS

Few organizations have the emotional stimulus possessed by the parent-teacher associations. Organized as they are on a local, state, and national basis, they represent a potency and power exceeding that of almost any other interest group so far as public education is concerned. While they have no direct authority to interfere with the legal structure of public education or to dictate what the board of education or its employees shall do, the members can, as individuals, claim the right to appraise the work of the schools. They do have the power to create and develop public opinion for the purpose of influencing community thinking with respect to its educational needs.

When proper relationships are maintained between the PTA and boards of education, the combination will bring about greater understanding and better cooperation than could be attained by either group working independently. Frequently the parent-teacher association is the board's strongest ally. A most effective demonstration of this fact was observed during the late depression when schools were able to maintain much of their educational program, in the face of strong opposition, because of the unusual efforts of the members of parent-teacher groups dedicated to the solution of educational problems in terms of the welfare of children.

The parent-teacher association is primarily a clearinghouse for the presentation and discussion of educational problems out of which may grow an interpretation to the community of the purpose, the worth, and the needs of the public schools. Altho it is outside of the legal organization of the school district it has a definite place in the functional organization and should be considered as an advisory and cooperating group of first importance. It can

act as an agency thru which essential parental education is carried on with the result that definite attitudes and ideals may be developed which will affect the people of the district as a whole.

If either the board of education or the PTA attempts to direct, threaten, or cajole the other, the educational program of the community will suffer. Both groups must recognize the basic principles upon which the National Congress of Parents and Teachers is founded. So long as it acts solely as a voluntary cooperating agency there should be little justification for conflict. The functional concept of the parent-teacher organization can be made effective, however, only under an intelligent and careful leadership capable of commanding the respect of board members and the public. An attitude on the part of the board to use the organization as a vital and valid agency in its public relations program will, under normal circumstances, result in better community understanding and appreciation of the purpose, the achievements, and the needs of the schools.

When conflicts arise they should be traced to their sources as quickly as possible and attempts made to remove the causes. Many conflicts are the result of either personal differences or a mistaken concept of the function of the PTA. The most general cause is poor leadership and a lack of cooperative effort, which allows special interest groups to "take the wheel" and to employ "pressure tactics" as a means of attaining their goals. Trouble is likely to ensue whenever the relationship between the board and the parent-teacher group becomes anything other than a cooperative partnership.

Individual Board Member in Public Relations; Informal Contacts

In every school district, regardless of size, the personal contacts of the individual board member are a vital factor in the public relations of the entire body. It is not easy for a member to remember, in his informal contacts with other citizens, that he can speak only as a layman. To make it more perplexing, patrons often expect him to commit himself on educational issues without consulting the other members of the board and may even demand that he exercise authority which he does not possess. To satisfy such patrons or friends without making a statement

which might later embarrass himself or the board is one of the most difficult tasks the individual must perform. The member who learns to use all such individual contacts for the purpose of interpreting and informing rather than deciding issues will have little occasion for regret providing he knows what he is talking about. On the other hand, expressions of personal opinion or commitments made prior to careful consideration and discussion by the board will frequently lead to dire results, since a little knowledge is often a dangerous thing and the board member who is not thoroly informed may fail to recognize his limitations.

Among the individual contacts made by a board member should be those which grow out of attendance at an appreciable number of the functions of the school. These functions should include assemblies, plays, musical programs, athletic events, and others where patrons are found in large numbers. By mingling with these groups he can obtain at firsthand their reactions to the work of the school and their attitudes toward what they see or hear. Such experiences will give him a deep insight into the public's feeling toward the school.

Wherever he goes the board member should consciously strive to keep open all available contacts and should utilize them for giving reliable information about the schools as well as for getting the reactions and attitudes of the people toward the schools. He should be most diligent in avoiding any misuse of these contacts for personal gain, by either direction or implication. Recognition of the fact that he can exercise authority as a board member only in regular meetings or in the performance of duties delegated to him by official action of the board is the first requisite of a successful trustee of school affairs.

Stalwart in his conviction that the efficiency of the school system and the advancement of public confidence in the program of education offered by the schools are cooperative matters involving himself, his fellow board members, the employees of the school district, and the public, the board member occupies a strategic position in the development of a pattern for a new world in which there can be established a dynamic and constructive peace. The opportunities and the pitfalls, the potentialities for general good and for utter chaos in the new world order are so overwhelming

that the horizons of all peoples, both young and old, must be extended if we may expect them to act with wisdom and courage to safeguard the future. In the words of the Canada-United States Committee on Education, "the stakes are high; the race between education and catastrophe is today running its fateful course." No nation can cope with matters of national concern or function effectively in world affairs without an understanding of other nations and a respect for other peoples which rise from the hearts and minds of the masses of its citizenry. The task of the board member in providing these resources in each succeeding generation is of utmost importance. No praise is too great, no compensation adequate for the service he is giving to society.

Signposts for Service . . .

★ *Representatives of all the people cooperate as boards of education to plan better schools for the future.*

★ *Thru wise board action the exceptionally good educational procedures of today become the common practice of tomorrow.*

★ *An effective member of a board of education, as he participates in planning an educational program, is critical but constructive, progressive but well poised, and incisive but not intrusive.*

★ *Continuing school surveys should be conducted to the end that new needs may be more effectively met.*

★ *School board members are educational trustees for the community they represent and should recognize this trusteeship as an obligation of the highest importance as they plan programs and formulate policies and, by making the most of schools in the life of the local community, contribute to our national well-being.*

★ *Good planning procedures on the part of a board of education require cooperative effort between the board and other community agencies such as those concerned with planning improvements in community health, recreation, welfare, and community development.*

★ *Thru participation in statewide organizations of school boards efforts may be pooled and common problems may be more effectively defined and solved.*

★ *The board of education leads in educational policy-making and yet it is guided by the public, not alone by expressed public opinion but also by the nature and purposes of the public so far as they can be observed. The board of education is expected to be well out on the frontiers of educational thought and to press the professional staff to make the most of these frontiers.*

CHAPTER IX

Planning Better Schools for the Future

THE CURRENTS of American culture have released forces which have steadily increased the fusion of school and community interests. Thru a long history the school remained a cloistered institution maintaining a restricted and formal curriculum which bore little direct relationship to the community. Not infrequently the school was *in* the community but not *of* it, and even to the present time there are traces of isolationism on the part of the schools, which divide and weaken where coordination and cooperation might bring strength and beauty into the life of both the school and the community.

Happily for the good life in the United States the emergence of well-integrated policies combining the interests of the school and community have been cultivated generally since the close of World War I and greatly accelerated in the fourth and fifth decades of the present century. The trend is clear and unmistakable. The schools belong to the people and, as never before, the people thru the actions taken by their lay representatives on boards of education are reaping the benefits of highly competent leadership. Thru the united efforts of the lay board, in formulating general educational policies in the light of community needs, and the professionally prepared executives, from superintendent of schools to classroom teacher, there comes a close coordination of life in school and community.

We no longer dare to allude to children in the classroom as the sum total of school life. We know that often the classroom, altho a center of life and work, is vacant as children work and learn in garden, museum, city hall, manufacturing plant, or thru cooperation with community groups for the common good. Furthermore, as we look into the several classrooms we find that the "children," in some cases, turn out to be adults. Here are young homemaking mothers learning to fashion children's clothes in the evening school, and there is a public forum including some community bigwigs, a scattering of "crack-pots," and a goodly number of thoughtful people of various ages, who differ widely in economic status, social position, and viewpoint. Where

once there were only cloistered classics there are now humming machines geared, educationally, to meet community needs in industry. Alert men and women come from stores and farms and join groups at work on problems of distributive occupations and technical agriculture; and, lest someone long with too much regret for the school of yesteryear, there are now ten times as many volumes, prints, and pictures on the classics in the school library as there were at the turn of the century. As we consider educational plans for the future we are by no means starting from scratch. The foundations are broad and the heritage is rich, but if we are critical in our observation we cannot escape being disturbed by the lag between what we know and what we do.

Knowing the Schools and the Community

How many admonitions have been based upon knowing! We are urged to know ourselves, to know the truth, to know our business, and advertising slogans urge us to know our grocers, druggists, filling station operators, and innumerable trademarks and signs. We cannot approach an educational institution without this urge to know rising as a central purpose in every quarter. Interestingly enough, in spite of the wide use, and sometimes with some abuse, the idea continues to be sound and good. To know is generally considered to be a good thing. Some knowledge is of little value, but in the vast majority of cases it is placed on the credit side of the ledger. It is good to know. It is good to know the community and the schools which serve it. Indeed each member of the board of education, if he is to serve wisely, must know the community and the school system for which the board is directly responsible.

A community can be studied critically and constructively. It has a history, a location, a status, numerous functions and needs, and it holds a distinctive place in the consciousness of both its members and many outside it. There are traditions, good and bad, affections for it, and devotions to it. Its growth, its redirection, and in some cases its decline are significant. One need possess little imagination to see in restrospect the early flow of migration along the streams to a waterfall, first harnessed to turn the saws which converted timber into lumber for building. A little later the same power ground the grain and then, with the rise of great

milling centers, the local gristmill disappeared and the self-same power was harnessed to a little contemporary industry. The community grew about it, influenced not alone by the water power but by the valley as a natural means for encouraging the building of railroads and highways. Fertility of the soil played a part; in some cases mineral deposits were equally significant; and accessibility to other communities and a place in the cooperative social pattern enriched the lives of the inhabitants both materially and culturally.

One of the most useful critical volumes designed to aid in the study of a community has been made available thru the Russell Sage Foundation, so long a benefactor in helping communities to help themselves. Colcord, the responsible author, introduces it with the following paragraph:

> This outline contains suggestions for groups of persons desirous of securing a rounded picture of their own community, especially as to the provision which that community makes to conserve the health and safety and to promote the education and general welfare of its inhabitants. The outline is not intended as a guide to technically equipped surveyors engaged in making social evaluations of a professional thoroughness. It suggests rather the type of information that might be assembled and studied by intelligent citizens and citizens-to-be, in order to have a background from which to attack the problem of supplying community lacks and improving existing services.[1]

This volume is rich in useful directives, meaningful charts, suggestions for making social maps, and the utilization of symbols. The organization is such that it can be used in brief studies or in comprehensive and detailed investigations. It is highly documented and the comprehensive bibliography lessens the need for mentioning detailed references in connection with this chapter.

A notable study pertinent to this discussion has been made by Thorndike, in which he measures the "general goodness" of 310 American cities by noting and comparing recorded facts. This critical and comprehensive study, which was made over a period of three years, reveals significant items and their meaning in considering the nature of any American community. Altho the study deals with cities, the factors taken into account are essentially universal and are pertinent to a community of any size. It is, therefore, appropriate for us to consider it.

[1] Colcord, Joanna C. *Your Community*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1941. p. 11.

This volume not only reports conditions of "general goodness" in 310 cities but Chapter 10, "Measure Your City," gives directions on how to do it and Chapter 11, "Improve Your City," suggests steps to be taken after the measurements have been made. At one place an illuminating comparison is made between a hypothetical "high" city and a hypothetical or composite "low" city:

A city which was as high in every trait as the highest city reported for that trait (which is what would occur if all the correlations were perfect) would lose only one baby out of thirty during the first year of life, would have no deaths from typhoid except very rarely in the case of some traveler who brought it with him. It would spend (per capita) over ten times as much public money as the inferior city for teachers' salaries and over twenty times as much for text-books and supplies, and would have over fifty acres of parks for every thousand of its population, with swimming pools, tennis courts, dancing pavilions and the like kept in first-class condition. It would have no slums; three-quarters of its families would own homes; hardly a child under fifteen would be compelled to work; over nine-tenths of those sixteen and seventeen would be in school, taught by teachers receiving average salaries of over $2,500 and over $3,500 in elementary and high-schools respectively. Its public property in the form of schools, libraries, parks and hospitals would be worth over $200.00 for every man, woman and child. Its public property (not counting streets or sewers) would be worth enough to cover all its public debt and leave a balance of over $300.00 per person.

A city which was as low in every trait as the lowest city reported for that trait would have one out of eight of its babies die within a year after birth, would lose many persons from typhoid, would spend less than five dollars of public money per capita for teachers' salaries, and almost nothing for text-books and supplies, nothing for a public library, and nothing for parks (of which it would have not an acre). Nearly two-fifths of its families would be living in homes renting for less than ten dollars a month, only one family in eight would own its home, less than a third of the girls and boys 16 or 17 would be in school, a tenth of the boys 10 to 14 and a twelfth of the girls 10 to 14 would be working for wages, the average salary of a high-school teacher would be under $1,200, and that of an elementary-school teacher under $800. The great majority of its homes would be without gas and over half of them would be without electricity; about nine in ten of them would be without a telephone. It would have no Y. M. C. A. or Boy Scouts, or similar organizations; there would be less than one trained nurse, and less than half a dentist, per thousand population; if an artist came there to live he would find no artist to keep him company. Over eighty persons per hundred thousand population would die from syphilis each year, and nearly sixty from homicidal attacks. The city would be nearly or quite bankrupt, all its public property (excluding the streets and sewers) not being worth enough to pay its debts.[2]

[2] Thorndike, Edward L. *Your City*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1939. p. 46-47.

UTILIZING STAFF LEADERSHIP AND RESOURCES

A man cannot lift himself by his own bootstraps, but a school system, regardless of size, can do something for its own improvement. By its very nature a public-school system is attached to and often deeply rooted in the life of the community. Its general policies are formulated by a board representing all the people and it is staffed by a professional personnel. In such a pattern there are all the essentials for advancing the services of the schools to ever higher planes of efficiency. At the moment we are concerned with the leadership of the staff in planning better schools for the future, and in doing so we are taking into account every classroom teacher along with all the supervisory and administrative officers in a system. These professionally prepared people run the system.

After a number of years of observation of many school systems, one which is entirely satisfactory to all concerned is yet to be found. There is always some group or faction who would have it "run differently." This is a healthy sign for the common good. The public schools belong to all the people and the people can do something about them. Here is a great social institution which has within it and at its command the leadership and the facilities for changing both its structure and its function for the better. The professional staff must not only assume the responsibility of running the system but also accept the professional responsibility of constantly recommending to the board changes and adjustments to meet the changing needs of the community it serves.

The professional staff is in a position to accumulate data—facts—of inestimable value in solving educational problems which are ever emerging. Significant data should be collected, classified, and preserved for ready reference as new needs arise and changes in policy are contemplated. The population of the community, its distribution, density, and nature must be understood if the schools are to function properly. The professional staff should keep live records of population facts showing changes in various sections of the community which affect the school population. Some of these can be recorded with numerical exactness. The number of births in a given section is a matter of record and likewise the number of children of a given age, but there are other changes which are a matter of degree or nature and the school staff should be sensitive to these significant factors. We refer, for example, to the transi-

tion of a residential district into an industrial district, the pressure for attendance at parochial schools, the shifting of nationality groups as Italian groups replace German groups or as a small Negro settlement grows rapidly into a larger area.

Changing attitudes and interests among foreign born, their children, and grandchildren are factors of the first magnitude educationally and socially, but many of the details are not readily tabulated. They can be noted, however, and reports of careful observations can be made. In some districts this work of community appraisal is being done by trained social workers, such as visiting teachers or home and school visitors. The teachers and principal of a school serving a community which is rapidly changing in these and other respects can render invaluable service toward improved policies and practices. A competent first-grade teacher may be able, thru her associations with the parents of her pupils, to provide significant information which is not available from any other source, and so it may be with the principal and other teachers. In short, the good teacher of the fifth decade of this century cannot be merely a drill master in a cloistered institution! We expect him to be a competent, critical student and leader in school and community relationships.

USE OF SURVEY SPECIALISTS

Boards of education have properly sought the services of survey specialists. To do this in no sense discounts the abilities of the regular staff nor does it excuse the regular staff from maintaining, in effect, what amounts to a perpetual survey. Occasions arise, however, when the board of education, the staff, and the leaders in the community find it desirable to turn to survey specialists, outside the local community. Hundreds of school and community surveys have been made by survey specialists since about 1910. It is possible that in a few instances some of the sponsors for such surveys have not been influenced by the highest motives, but in the vast majority of the cases the records are sound and good. High purposes have characterized the studies and many findings have been of great worth.

The survey movement has included a wide variety of investigations. Some have been comprehensive and others have been highly specialized. There have been surveys concerned almost wholly with building programs; others have been primarily on finance; pupil

achievement has been surveyed; surveys of instructional procedures have been made; and curriculum surveys are both numerous and voluminous. Others have emphasized health; community, school, and home relationships; recreation; special classes; vocational education; provisions for state support; and, of course, special levels, such as nursery schools, kindergartens, elementary schools, secondary education, and the junior college; and all phases of higher education. Thruout this movement there has been a trend toward an ever increasing consideration of the community to be served. Attitudes of educators and laymen have undergone marked changes in this respect since the first decade of this century and particularly since the first World War. The schools are being less and less considered as isolated institutions and more and more accepted as integral parts of the community.

Sears summarized the movement in this way:

> Less than thirty years old, the survey movement has reached every type of school organization—institutional, district, county, state, and national. The scope of surveys has varied from the study of a single problem or unit of the organization to a thorough examination of the entire enterprise. The school survey has utilized techniques from various areas, but experience has been an important factor in its development. Numerous studies independent of any particular survey have also contributed to the development of the movement. The review of a sampling of the surveys, studies of surveys, and related research makes clear that substantial progress has been made in the direction of scientific methods, but continued effort is necessary to develop the survey movement to the limit of its possibilities.
>
> The distinguishing feature of the school survey as a type of investigation is not the character of the individual techniques employed but rather the way in which the several lines of inquiry are organized and directed toward a unified purpose.[3]

Survey specialists should be in a position to achieve some ends which regular members of the school staff cannot: (a) Normally they possess more technical preparation and wider experience than do available members of the regular staff. (b) They are independent of the system and tend to be freer from bias because of friendships and official connections. (c) Comparisons made with other communities and school systems are possible over a wider range of cases because of expert knowledge and greater experience. (d) The out-

[3] Sears, Jesse B. "School Surveys." *Encyclopedia of Educational Research.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1941. p. 1062. ¶ See also discussion and selected bibliography dealing with school surveys, p. 1062-1064.

sider is normally less susceptible to the vagaries of local public opinion. In most cases he can confer with men of great power and influence without the embarrassment of local lines of cleavage. (e) The outside surveyor has access to all the local records and the counsel of the regular staff and, in addition to these, he will have, thru his own professional connections, access to an array of materials which are outside the province of the local community. This is particularly true of surveys dealing with buildings and curriculums. The outside survey specialists do not take the place of the local staff, but they do carry on technical investigations which can be made more efficiently by the survey expert. Indeed it has been suggested that the employment of school surveyors by school boards is analagous to the employment of industrial engineers by directors of a corporation. Such employment implies neither weakness nor lack of faith in the management. It is probably true that the more successful school systems, like the more prosperous industries, engage large amounts of consulting service.

COOPERATION WITH INDUSTRIAL SURVEYS

Industrial surveys have become as numerous and critical as school surveys and often broader in scope. We are here using the term "industrial" in a broad sense. It can mean much more than what goes on in a manufacturing plant and may well include various phases of agricultural life (agriculture is sometimes called industry), mining, fishing, lumbering, transportation, and commerce. Neither industrial surveys nor school surveys in a community can properly ignore the ramifications of their institutional influences as they cut across the numerous lines of cleavages which constitute the social network of the entire community.

The tragic losses and cost of the war years beginning in 1939 never can be fully gauged or comprehended, but a few important byproducts, in material achievements, in social understanding, and in personal well-being, have accrued. One significant movement among these worthy ends has been the wider use of the industrial survey. In a period of great national danger people become not only aware of their social heritage—political, economic, and natural—but they are aroused to reexamine these values as they have appeared in the community life of America.

Much had been done by way of industrial surveys before the

war. Great industries had thrived largely thru making accurate surveys of needs and potential markets. Knowing the facts, they could expand production and services with confidence. In this need for information no corporation stood alone. A transportation system must transport not merely some one commodity but many products, and hence must know their sources and their destinations. Moreover, these commodities are always produced in communities, transported by personnel living in communities to people living in still other communities. Thus the worth of the people in communities always emerges as the first value. The policy of "the people be damned" has become incompatible with progress and ultimate soundness in economic affairs.

The United States Department of Commerce and the Chamber of Commerce of the United States of America have sponsored critical industrial surveys in all parts of the country and have woven the results into a national comprehensive pattern of striking worth. The Department of Commerce presents results obtained in over 460 communities in 1942-43.[4] Among the purposes of these surveys we find such items as these emphasized:

First is the work pile plan. This is essentially a summary of the new jobs which the corner grocer, the druggist, the lawyer, and other businessmen know they will have to offer when the war is over. It covers not only employment opportunities, but repair, remodeling, and so on. It is in no sense a program of post-war plans for any individual company. It is a community summary of opportunities in your community.

Second is a survey of manufacturing opportunities which your community could reasonably expect to attract after the war is over. While the chamber of commerce or other business organizations in your town will want to call on individual manufacturers for guidance in appraising these opportunities, care should be taken to confine this study to the community level, while urging each individual manufacturer to lay his own plans in cooperation with the Committee for Economic Development.

The third suggestion in this booklet is for communities with a greatly swollen wartime population. It is a plan whereby businessmen working through their chamber of commerce or other business organizations can make an estimate of the size of the problem the community will face at the end of the war, and take certain definite steps now to prepare to meet that problem when it arises.

The fourth suggestion relating directly to post-war problems is a simple program to urge consumers, retailers, wholesalers, bankers, manufacturers, and

[4] U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. *Community Action for Post-War Jobs and Profits*. Industrial Series, No. 6. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, 1943. 32 p.

businessmen generally to build reserves of ideas and money for the post-war period.[5]

The Committee for Economic Development, now widely known as the CED, has become a powerful agency in this field thru effective organization and the enlistment of able specialists in their respective fields:

> The Committee for Economic Development is a private, independent, non-profit organization. It is neither an official nor a semi-official agency of the Government. It is financed by contributions from business.
>
> In no sense does the Committee intend to act as an overall postwar planning group. Its activities are keyed to the single purpose of raising the level of useful jobs in industry and commerce.
>
> Its objectives are to stimulate, encourage and help individual companies in planning programs for products and markets that will enable them to reach and maintain high levels of productive employment in the postwar period . . . and, through national research, to define conditions favorable for expansion of business enterprise when peace comes.[6]

Often lay reports mention such items as "Opportunities for Young People," "Social and Recreational Opportunities," "Local Cooperation," "Public Relations," "Forums," and "Strengthen Service Establishments." Again and again emphasis is laid upon the nature and needs of the community, together with comments which illuminate the opportunities and obligations of the educational system. The findings of such surveys are available to educational authorities as they take stock of educational potentialities and formulate educational policies for the general good.

Ascertaining Public Hopes and Desires

What are the hopes and desires of the public? Some thousands of members of boards of education would surely like to know. But in the meantime, members of boards of education are both idealists and realists at one and the same time, and as they struggle to keep their idealism and realism in sensitive balance they may all but despair of worthy achievement. Yet the school trustee lacking in either trait should not be entrusted long with the general policy-making responsibilities of a school system.

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[5] U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, *op. cit.*, p. 9-10.

[6] Committee for Economic Development. *Postwar Jobs in Private Business.* Handbook for community chairmen. Washington, D. C.: the Committee (U. S. Dept. of Commerce Bldg.), 1943. 20 p.

A board of education, however, if true to its trust, must struggle to know the hopes and desires of the public which it serves and, while no final summary or pattern may be possible, the board must formulate an acceptable working policy. Most boards of education try to understand their communities, and to the best of their understanding and ability they try to meet the obvious needs, if not all the hopes and desires, of all members of the community.

Procedures for determining policies have varied all the way from the vaguest hunches to the collection and interpretation of facts according to the best and most scientific methods available. The board member may possess a bias derived from his early experiences in the schools he now serves. Only with great difficulty, if at all, can he disentangle himself from the traditions, policies, and practices which prevailed in the schools of his childhood. This is true not only of board members but of most adults. Each has been influenced thru the years by his vocation and his social and cultural experiences, which have left distorted memories of actual conditions.

Good schools, adapted to the needs of a community, can be developed only thru careful planning. As we plan our national and community life we are compelled to plan our public schools. Schools are a prime essential. Without them democracy cannot endure. This truth is reflected in the 1943 report of the National Resources Planning Board as it attempted to outline, among other things, our *national* hopes and desires for education. The following significant proposals were submitted, with supporting arguments for each:

1. That equal access to elementary and high-school education be assured all children and youth.
2. That services for young children, such as nursery schools and kindergartens, be made generally available in urban areas and insofar as possible in those rural areas where the need is greatest.
3. That equal access to general and specialized education be made available to all youth of college and university age, according to their abilities and the needs of society.
4. That adequate provision be made for the part-time education of adults through expansion of services such as correspondence and class study, forums, educational broadcasting, and libraries and museums.
5. That educational provisions for children who for any reason need special types of instruction be greatly expanded.
6. That the quality of education at all levels and for all persons be made adequate to meet the needs of a democratic nation.

7. That men and women demobilized from the armed forces and war industries be given opportunity to secure necessary retraining for civilian activities, or to continue their education in cases where it was interrupted by the war.

8. That camp facilities be made available for all youth above the lower elementary grades, with work experience provided as a part of camp life.

9. That meals at school, and supervised work and play projects and other services before and after school hours, be made available to all children who need them.

10. That an extensive program of building construction and repair be undertaken to meet the needs of education at all levels.

11. That school districts be reorganized to enlarge the local administrative unit and the tax base.

12. That dormitories and transportation services for pupils in rural areas are greatly expanded.

13. That the services of the United States Office of Education and State departments of education be expanded and developed to provide adequate research facilities and educational leadership to the Nation.

14. That adequate funds be made available by the local, State, and Federal governments to assure the carrying out of the recommendations presented above.

15. That inequality of the tax burden for education within and among the States be reduced through the distribution of State and Federal funds on the basis of need.[7]

Turning to the U. S. Office of Education, we find that special consideration is given to the problem of educational planning in its recent publications:

Since this country is committed to the democratic way of life, the methods of educational planning must be appropriate for a democracy. They furnish the opportunity for the formulation of a sound educational philosophy as a basis for examining our existing educational offerings and for positive action toward the realization of the kind of educational program needed.

Effective educational planning, that is, planning which actually accomplishes what should be done, demands the following:

1. A clear-cut specific concept of what the educational needs are. This concept of the educational needs will have to be developed by individuals and then agreed upon and adopted by groups of individuals.

2. A comparison of the existing educational offerings with the educational needs.

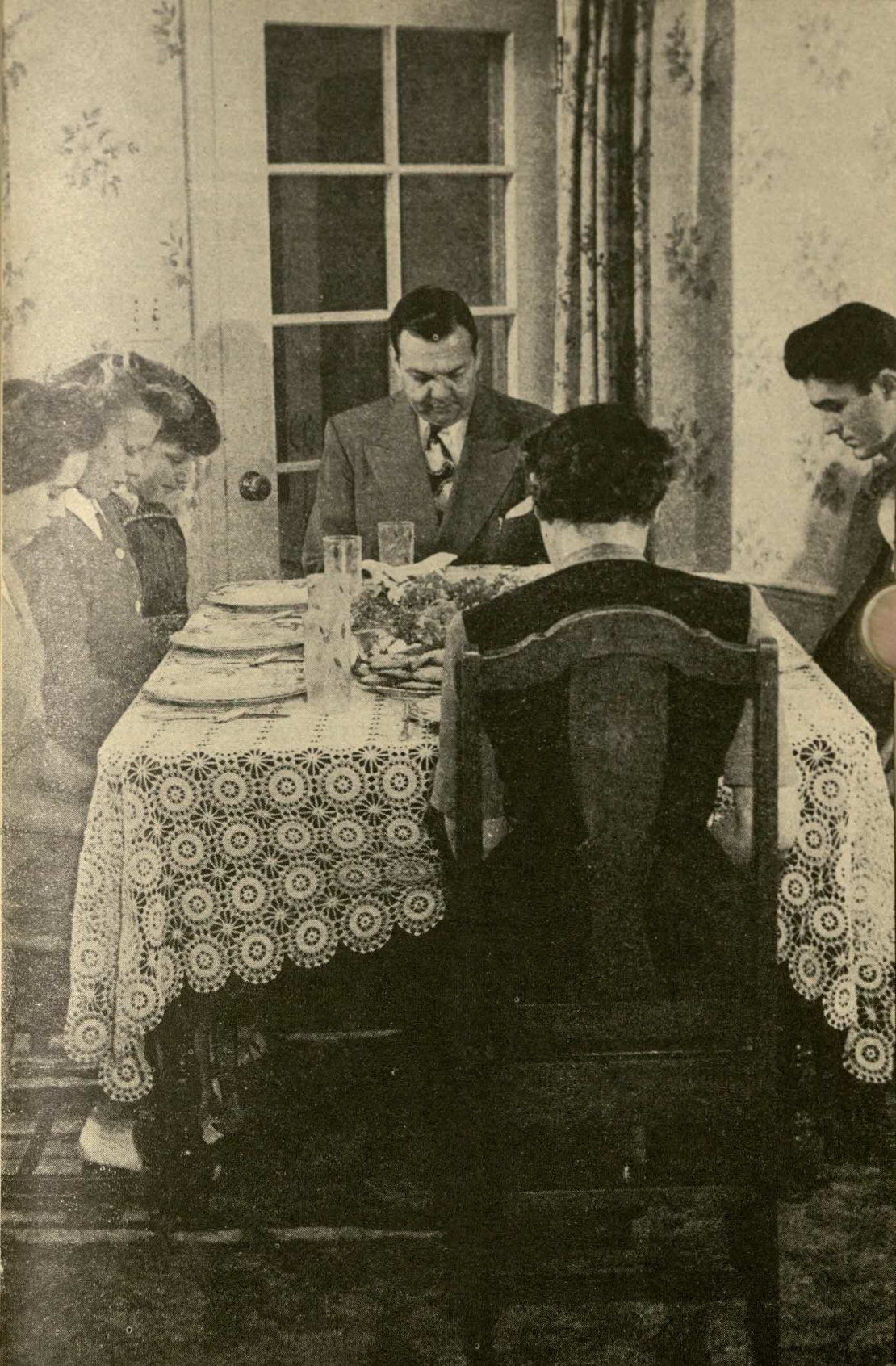
3. A specific recognition of the phases of the existing system of education that:

(a) Meet needs and therefore should be maintained.

(b) Fail to meet needs and therefore should be modified or abolished.

(c) Are operated inefficiently and are therefore excessive in cost.

[7] National Resources Planning Board. *National Resources Development Report for 1943: Part I. Post-War Plan and Program.* Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, 1943. p. 69-73.



PARENTS—*whose cooperation is essential in a modern school program. Thru their parent-teacher groups they help to build constructive community attitudes, assist the school board in developing policies, and help to improve the educational opportunities of children and youth.*

Photograph by
Public Schools of Glendale, California

4. Action expressed by ballot toward the passing of laws which will:
   (a) Make desirable changes in the present educational system.
   (b) Abolish any divisions of the existing system which are "out-of-date."
   (c) Add new educational services that are needed.[8]

The foregoing suggest something of the scope of educational planning which has been greatly stimulated by the war and its more or less revolutionary related effects. Social changes and attendant adjustments have been accelerated greatly and the schools are at the very center of this social whirlwind. Thoughtful people everywhere have recognized new educational needs and responsibilities and have aligned themselves in constructive planning organizations all the way from national patterns down to the details of the smallest local community.

Many of the states have launched special projects in this area which may be typified by the work in the state of New York. This enterprise had a fortunate beginning in the research committee of the State Council of Superintendents, which was extended quickly to include the cooperation of the State School Boards Association and the district superintendents. Sponsored by the Division of Research in the State Education Department, it was given official recognition and support by the Board of Regents. The Department's Division of Research, in cooperation with a small working committee, sought the advice and suggestions of a wide array of leading representatives of industry, labor, agriculture, welfare, commerce, health, and vocational and general education, and in the light of this assistance proceeded to devise means whereby local communities, whatever their size, might effectively study the problems confronting education. The purpose was to assist but not to dominate. Emphasis was placed upon the desirability of educational planning being synchronized with all other community planning and of laymen playing important roles in the procedure along with the superintendents of schools and their professional associates. The State Education Department prepared a manual and work sheets which were sent to all boards of education, and stood ready to serve as a clearinghouse for ideas whereby good practices in one community might be passed along to other communities. The enterprise was

[8] Fowlkes, John Guy. *Planning Schools for Tomorrow: The Issues Involved.* U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency. Leaflet No. 64. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, 1942. p. 21-22.

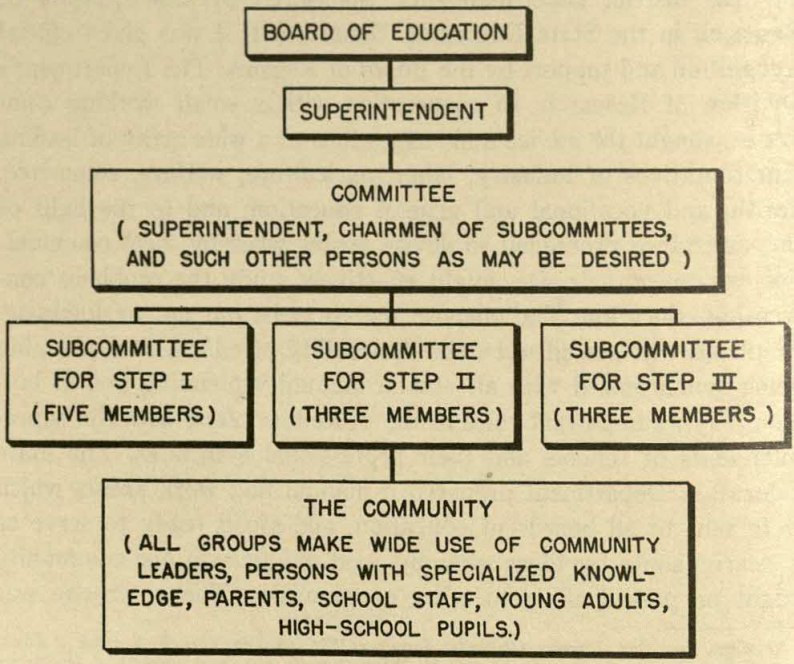
developed democratically, but it was given position and strength thru the office of the State Education Department.

The central ideas are brought out in the following questions:

1. What will the community (city, village, or school district) be like in 1950?
2. For this kind of community, what kind of education is needed and for whom?
3. In terms of the kind of education we want, what are the outstanding deficiencies in the present program?
4. How can the community move from where it is to where it wants to be?[9]

Each of these questions determines a step to be taken in such a study. It is to be noted that the emphasis is upon local initiative. The boards of education and people of a community are not told what they *should* do. Rather are they encouraged to discover *where* the community *wants to be* educationally. The manual is worked out in detail and convenient work sheets are provided. A plan of organization is suggested, but again it is assumed that organizational needs will vary in the several communities.

[9] New York State Education Department. *Problems Confronting Boards of Education.* Albany: the Department, 1944. p. 5-6.



Source: New York State Education Department. Problems Confronting Boards of Education. Albany: the Department, 1944. p. 9.

Scores of communities have proceeded to study their educational needs by utilizing this plan as a guide and placing the findings before their boards of education.

Adjusting the School to Changing Social and Economic Conditions

One of the great merits of the American political system, possibly the greatest, is the provision for change. One important reason why our American Constitution is sturdy and strong lies in the fact that it is adaptable and can be amended. From its beginning it was not assumed that it was the last word in governmental structure which would be adequate for all time. It has been changed or amended many times to meet the changing needs of the people, and American education likewise, from its earliest inception, has undergone changes thru the efforts and orderly procedures of a free people. Could the framers of the Constitution and the thoughtful people who supported them in their great new step in representative government review these changes today, particularly those influencing education, it seems probable that they would be stirred with amazement and satisfaction. Omitting, as they did, any reference to education in the federal Constitution, education has from that day to this been recognized as a state function; and there has grown thru the years, from the earliest land grants for education, an ever increasing amount of federal funds for some types of education, but the amounts going directly to the school district have been relatively small. The tabulation in Table 3 of federal grants to states in 1943 is illuminating.

Thru the United States Office of Education and the earlier federal organizations for encouraging education, we enjoy the benefits of an office of record in which innumerable facts concerning education have been collected from all parts of the United States and many foreign countries. Significant facts of the past have been ascertained and recorded, current trends have been reported, pioneer areas in education have been explored, and the results are available to boards of education and all other responsible agents charged with formulating educational policies. It may be urged, however, that school superintendents can greatly facilitate the value of this service by bringing to the attention of the board those findings of significance to the local school system. Likewise the U. S.

Office of Education might make special effort to see that these results reach boards of education in a form that they can use and understand.

EXTENSION OF PROGRAM UPWARD AND DOWNWARD

The public-school program has been greatly expanded since the days of the first common schools in which an elementary training in the three R's constituted practically the entire offering of the public schools. This expansion has been along a number of different

TABLE 3.—FEDERAL GRANTS TO STATES IN 1943 [a]

Purpose	Amount	
Educational services and programs		$188,923,516.00
Colleges of agriculture and mechanical arts	$5,030,000.00	
Vocational education (exclusive of war)	20,910,772.00	
Vocational education (national training)	131,240,629.00	
Agricultural extension work	18,783,694.00	
Agricultural experiment stations	6,921,703.00	
Other educational services and programs	6,036,718.00	
Health services		34,869,345.00
Old-age assistance		319,175,802.00
Unemployment compensation administration		54,415,683.00
Other social services, including aid to the blind, aid to dependent children, and child welfare services		78,147,725.00
Highways		96,662,231.00
Work projects and public works		280,619,639.00
Other programs and services		38,390,760.00
Food distribution administration	21,984,018.00	
State veterans' homes	6,559,502.00	
Other	9,847,240.00	
Total		$1,091,204,701.00

Source: American Association of School Administrators. *Paths to Better Schools.* Twenty-Third Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, a department of the National Education Association, 1945. p. 188.

[a] Arrangement in major categories of items shown in the *Congressional Record,* August 7, 1944, p. A3828-29.

lines, such as longer school terms, wider variety in curriculums, vocational courses and schools, part-time schools, more advanced work for older pupils, greatly increased numbers of secondary schools, colleges and universities, and special adult education programs in the upper ranges and a great development of kindergartens and some beginnings of nursery schools for young children. The expansions and developments have known a steady growth and only a daring prophet would care to define their limits. But boards of education are concerned with trends rather than limits, knowing full well that limits will be determined largely by interests, understanding, and the rise or decline of population and available wealth in their respective communities. All are aware of the expansion which has been going on, and as we turn and note the tremendous social and economic changes taking place in American life as a part of the titanic world struggle thru economic depression and international war, we are compelled to contemplate the scope of education of today and what it ought to be tomorrow. In considering patterns of expansion we shall do well to examine Table 4.[10]

These suggested programs already are well founded in many communities. By no means, let anyone pass them off as frills or inconsequential extras. Their values have been recognized and verified. Neither adult education nor the nursery school can longer be considered a frill. Vocational education is still far from the maturity it rightfully should attain. Not all these developments and expansions are essential to every family. They are not universal in this sense but their values have been recognized generally.

The nursery-school movement is relatively new and its purpose and values are not understood as widely as they might well be. Such schools are not places to leave the children for a few hours while their mothers spend their time at inconsequential pleasures. The nursery school, as no other section of the school system, unites the efforts of parents and teachers in providing for the wholesome growth and development of young children.

It is the institution par excellence in which parental education and young childhood education are brought together effectively. The rapid rise of the nursery school under federal subsidy during the war emergency is eloquent testimony of its value to American

[10] National Education Association. *Proposals for Public Education in Postwar America.* Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1944. p. 32.

TABLE 4.—ESTIMATES OF PERSONNEL AND OF ANNUAL CURRENT EXPENDITURES (IN 1940 DOLLARS) REQUIRED TO OPERATE THE PROPOSED "GOAL" PROGRAM FOR PUBLIC ELEMENTARY, SECONDARY, AND ADULT SCHOOLS[a] IN THE CONTINENTAL UNITED STATES

	Ages of individuals to be enrolled in school					
	3-5 years	6-11 years	12-17 years	18-19 years	Total 3-19 years	20 years and over
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A. Personnel:						
1. Number of individuals to be enrolled in public schools[b]	2,019,000	11,760,900	13,470,500	3,538,300	30,788,700	8,636,000
2. Number of full-time teachers, counselors, and librarians needed for these enrolees[c]	155,300	470,000	538,800	141,500	1,306,000	.....
3. Number of full-time school nurses needed[d]	2,000	7,800	6,700	1,800	18,300	.....
4. Number of full-time school clerks needed[e]	4,000	23,500	26,900	7,100	61,500	.....
5. Number of full-time employees needed for school plant operation and maintenance[f]	10,100	58,800	67,300	17,700	153,900	.....

6. Number of part-time school-bus drivers needed[g]	8,800	51,500	58,900	15,500	134,700	.....
7. Number of full-time school administrators, supervisors, and central-office clerical employees needed[h]	.....	.....	.....	.....	123,200	.....
B. Current expenditures (in 1940 dollars):						
1. Salaries of teachers, counselors, and librarians[i]	$388,200,000	$1,176,000,000	$1,347,000,000	$353,700,000	$3,264,900,000	.....
2. Salaries of school nurses[i]	5,000,000	19,500,000	16,700,000	4,500,000	45,700,000	.....
3. Salaries of school clerks[j]	7,200,000	42,300,000	48,400,000	12,800,000	110,700,000	.....
4. Cost of pupil transportation[k]	10,100,000	58,800,000	67,400,000	17,700,000	154,000,000	.....
5. Other current expenditures[l]	63,100,000	367,500,000	464,700,000	122,100,000	1,017,400,000	.....
6. Total current expenditures	$473,600,000	$1,664,100,000	$1,944,200,000	$510,800,000	$4,592,700,000	$86,400,000
7. Current expenditures per pupil enrolled	$235	$141	$144	$144	$149	$10[m]

[a] Including nursery-school facilities for very young children, full-time elementary- and secondary-school facilities thru Grade XIV, and part-time schools for adults.

[b] Enrolment figures are based on the U. S. census enumeration of individuals in the several age groups as of April 1940. No allowance is made for future population trends because of uncertainty as to the date when the proposed educational pattern might become fully effective. It is assumed that the following percents of children in the several age groups would be enrolled in elementary and secondary schools, public or private: children 3-5 years old, 35 percent; those 6-17 years old, 100 percent; and those 18-19 years old, 75 percent. It is also assumed that 90 percent of all school enrolees 3-13 years old would be in *public* schools, and that 94 percent of those 14-19 years old would be in such schools. The number of adults 20 or more years old who would attend part-time public schools is estimated at approximately 10 percent.

[c] It is assumed that, on the average, 2 professionally trained teachers would be needed for every group of 20 children 3-4 years of age (with some assistance from capable mothers or older students especially interested in child care); that 1 trained teacher should be provided for every 20 children at age 5; and that at each age level from 6 thru 19, teaching, counseling, and library service together should be provided at the rate of 1 trained staff member for every 25 pupils enrolled.

[d] The estimated numbers of school nurses required are based on the following ratios: 1 nurse for every 1000 children aged 3-5 years; 1 nurse for every 1500 children aged 6-11; and 1 nurse for every 2000 pupils aged 12-19.

Footnotes continued on bottom of page 246.

life. It lays a sound educational foundation in child life and at the same time provides a means of parental education. This education of the parent at the time the child is so dependent is one of the best outcomes from this program.

The kindergarten is so well established that it has come to be recognized generally as an integral part of the public-school system. The life of the kindergarten is integrated with the whole elementary-school program, which has long been the universal educational institution of the country. Likewise the junior high school, offering its rich program, opportunities for exploratory effort, and the articulation of its program with secondary schools beyond it, has been well established.

The high school has long been recognized as the "people's college," even prior to the advent of the junior high school, until today the senior high school has flowered into an institution with a wide range of educational offerings, varying from the general offerings of terminal education to college-preparatory and a variety of technical and vocational programs. Superimposed upon the high school are junior colleges and technical institutes. The latter deal with technical vocational preparation for high-school graduates who normally will not go on to college. These institutions (junior colleges and technical institutes), taking advantage of the fact that they are not restricted unduly by tradition, are shaping their programs to practically every need of older youth. The colleges and universities are so well and so widely known that little comment concerning them is needed here. The growth of state-supported colleges and universities has been phenomenal, and the later development of municipal institutions of higher learning, usually in con-

[e] Based on the ratio of 1 clerk to every 500 pupils at all age levels.

[f] Based on the ratio of 1 employee to every 200 pupils.

[g] Based on the ratio of 1 bus driver to every 50 pupils needing daily transportation to and from school, assuming that one-fourth of the plant operation and maintenance employees in rural schools would drive school buses. Figures given for bus drivers do not include persons engaged in plant operation or maintenance.

[h] Based on the ratio of 1 employee in this general category to every 250 pupils. This ratio can be considered valid as a general average only. In very large school systems it may be feasible to employ only 1 such staff member for every 350 or 400 pupils, while in unusually small administrative units it may be necessary to have as many as 1 staff member for every 100 or 150 pupils.

[i] At an average salary of $2500 per year.

[j] At an average salary of $1800 per year.

[k] Based on the cost of school transportation per pupil transported in the U. S. in 1939-40, together with the estimated number of pupils who would need to be transported daily to consolidated or centralized schools under the proposed postwar pattern of education.

[l] Based on the average per-pupil expenditure for the remainder of the school budget in ten cities, in each of which the average salary paid to teachers in 1940-41 was approximately $2500.

[m] Selected as a reasonable figure after an examination of actual expenditures in a number of cities having comprehensive and successful programs of part-time education for adults.

nection with the public-school systems in large cities, marks new levels of educational achievement in this realm.

A great area of less sharply defined plan or pattern is known as adult education. Its scope is exceedingly wide and comprehensive. It is to be found in communities ranging from small rural neighborhoods to great metropolitan centers. The offerings spread out to include almost every educational interest known to adult life. Part of it is largely recreational in character, some offerings may be termed cultural, while at the other extreme are rich offerings in technical fields too new for adults to have mastered them in the institutions attended in their youth. Thruout the program there runs a dominant motif designated as good citizenship, the growth of democratic ideals and practices, and a wider understanding of contemporary political, economic, and social life. It is already a powerful force in American life and its trends appear destined to strengthen American life as few other institutions can.

RECREATION AND HEALTH

Health is first in human life and all its activities. Without health—physical and mental well-being—the individual, and hence society, cannot survive. Probably no great nation has been more fully conscious of this than has the United States. Perhaps other nations have surpassed us, thru their long periods of existence, in attaining world recognition in the various arts and in some of the basic sciences, but the United States stands in a unique position in bringing such a large portion of its population to a high point of sensitivity to the fundamental values of health and sanitation. America excels among the great nations in this realm. It is America's greatest contribution to the culture of the world, as the efforts of the whole gamut of medical science and sanitary engineering so eloquently testify.

Health programs are vastly more than therapeutic services, as every good practicing physician knows. Curative measures are essential and necessary, but all members of the various branches of medical and health professions give attention to preventive measures and reiterate again and again that fundamentally and basically health is a matter of education.

Recreation is inextricably bound up with health and education. The American people believe in work. Labor is exalted everywhere,

and the idler is frowned upon, whether he be a multimillionaire playboy or a hobo. Work is good. But just as surely as work is good, so must there be opportunity to recreate one's capacities, physically and mentally. A life of all work will not do. Play, too, is good. Everyone should work but, by the same token, everyone should be entitled to recreation, and the public schools as the universal institution of all the people must provide ample means for preparing each citizen to work and to play, to enhance his productive powers, and to sustain his life and personality thru sound and wholesome recreation. Education is one of a number of forces capable of carrying the level of our recreational life to the highest points attainable. It should be constructively critical of commercialized recreation and amusements and provide leadership in guarding the emotional and physical well-being of youth. Without adequate educational provisions recreation tends to drift to low and even destructive levels. Uninformed and ill-prepared individuals during their leisure hours all too frequently drift into dissipations which tend to injure and destroy both the individual and the society of which they are parts. Trustees of education for any community should accept their share of responsibility for a sound and effective program in recreation and health.

OCCUPATIONAL PATTERNS

The ever increasing number of recognized occupations in the United States—The U. S. *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* (June 1939) lists 17,452 jobs—is at once a matter of pride and concern; of pride because these occupations reflect our cultural advance in services, technologies, and social organizations, and of concern when we contemplate the tasks of preparation for them and the innumerable skills and abilities required to keep the social organizations functioning in an acceptable manner. Boards of education, in cooperation with professional staff and the public, cannot go far in planning better schools without a careful consideration of the occupational patterns of the community and likewise something of the occupational patterns of other communities with which economic and other social and political relations are maintained.

For example, our great port cities, such as Boston, New Orleans, New York, San Francisco, and Seattle, are peculiarly concerned with occupational patterns of remote foreign communities as trade lines

reach out to all parts of the world. To only slightly lesser degree the inland cities feel these relationships. They are more readily seen in the packing industries of Chicago, the milling enterprises of the Twin Cities, and the steel production of Pittsburgh; but hundreds of smaller communities look to the markets of the world, and practically all communities are somewhat dependent upon the products from remote parts of the world. Probably the impact of international war is made most vivid to the average person when trade lines are cut and products of other lands and climates are no longer available. He is shocked into a realization that he is a part of a world community with its vast network of occupational interests and patterns of commerce and exchange. Thus the changes in remote parts of the world may have a pronounced effect upon the local community regardless of its size or location.

A good school is adequate to the community it serves, and in making adaptations the prevailing occupations should be a major factor in the determination of educational policies. The relationships between occupations and vocational education are readily seen, altho the public, generally speaking, has been slow to take effective action in strengthening these relationships with adequate programs of vocational education. The professional leaders in vocational education have rendered considerable service in this area, but in too many cases boards of education, school administrators, and leaders in public action have not met these issues realistically. A man's occupation is a matter of importance. Occupations color and influence the families concerned. They constitute a way of community and family life which, if it is to be as good as it can be, must be taken into account by the educational system of the entire community. Programs of general education and also appropriate vocational education are essential to the "good life" in any community.

Important facts which might be valuable to a board of education in formulating general educational policies are not always at hand and some may not be obtainable. But this is not true in the field of occupations. Excellent critical studies have been made of practically all occupations, as such, and the results have been circulated widely. Also, a local occupational survey is a matter of great importance in the determination of educational policies and practices for a community. These are particularly valuable to the members

of a board of education as they wrestle with problems of policy and to an educational staff responsible for putting the policies into practice.

An occupational survey, with provisions for keeping the facts up to date, is a prime essential to good educational planning. It is a thing which each community, regardless of size, can and should do for itself. It is local in nature, local in value, and local personnel can perform the necessary tasks of making it. It can be made one of the most democratic experiences available to a community. It is a task to enlist the interests and cooperation of everyone. It is a local reality, ever changing, always new, always suggesting the possibility of better adjustments in the educational program. It is rooted in capital investment, the interests of labor, family pride, community enterprise, and the whole network of human relationships. The pattern is changing constantly and an alert, systematic plan for knowing the nature and degree of change is needed to illuminate the problems of all educational and community planning.

POPULATION MOBILITY

We are a mobile people: Large numbers of our population own their own homes, farms, and businesses, of one kind or another, and yet from our pioneer beginnings the movement of population in America has been notable. Our great systems of transportation, the development of the automobile and general traveling facilities may be considered as both cause and effect. Americans move about and appear to be proud of it. Our national history is one of rising population, not only thru births but from streams of immigration which diminished only after the enactment of restrictive legislation. In the meantime we move about within our great realm on vacations, to explore other regions for economic opportunities, to enjoy a change of climate, to visit or escape relatives, and perhaps in some cases merely for the sake of a joy ride. No matter how we consider these trends we find that they accentuate our educational problems. We are devoted to the cause of education, and no matter how far or how frequently a family may move there is a common understanding that the children shall have ready access to a public school.

There have been times and places where it has been exceedingly difficult to keep the educational facilities abreast with the rising

school population. The rapid increase of population in recent years in Detroit as the automotive industry grew, the trek from the Middlewest to California, and the growth of New York City, not to mention special communities such as Vanport, Oregon, as a result of war industry, are examples of pronounced changes. In thousands of other communities populations have risen and fallen so rapidly as to make educational planning little short of a nightmare for those responsible for the school system. There have been many of these "boom towns" and "ghost towns." But difficulties in planning and maintaining a public-school system do not constitute an excuse for inaction.

Most boards of education are aware of the larger aspects of regional populations. Early settlements were made along the Atlantic Coast, and with immigration from Europe the density increased somewhat out of proportion to natural resources as compared with states farther west. Certain coastal centers of commerce and industry compensate in part for limited natural resources, while in other localities, particularly in the Southeast, standards of living have not kept pace as density of population has increased. The Great Plains area, rich in natural resources and the rise of industries related to agriculture, has varied in population trends. During periods of insufficient rainfall in certain areas farming populations have shifted accordingly. The population along the Pacific Coast has a long history, particularly in California, if we consider the early Spanish influence. More recent characteristics have come thru migrants from the Middlewest, an ever increasing number of Orientals, and the policy of attracting Mexican and Negro labor for the great fruit and vegetable enterprises and for war industries.

An area which has been widely discussed, having a population of low mobility, is the southern Appalachian region, commonly alluded to as the mountains of the South, where for decades almost no impact from foreign immigration was felt. Even migration within the region was considerably less than in most other areas.

Concerning interregional migration between 1930 and 1940, the National Education Association reports as follows:

> The largest net gain from interregional migration was made by the Pacific states; the highest net loss, by the West North Central region. The gains made by the Mountain and Pacific states offset almost exactly the losses shown in the

West North Central and West South Central regions. Similarly, the gains in the South Atlantic and Middle Atlantic states approximately offset the losses of New England and the East South Central region. While there were many removals from each geographic region to every other region, the foregoing data strongly imply certain prevailing patterns of migration—from the Great Plains toward the Pacific; and from New England and the East South Central regions toward the Central and South Atlantic Seaboard. The net result of inter-regional migration was of least significance in the East North Central region. This does not mean that the volume of migration was either more or less for these states than for any other region, but only that the number of in- and out-migrants was virtually the same.[11]

The same bulletin presents the following statement concerning regional distribution which is pertinent to educational planning:

The concentration of population in certain areas of the country can also be shown by allowing 100 persons to represent the total population. On an approximate basis, 6 of these 100 persons would live in the New England states; 21, in the Middle Atlantic states; 20, in the East North Central (Great Lakes area); 14, in the South Atlantic area; 8, in the East South Central; 10, in the West South Central; 10, in the West North Central; 3, in the Mountain states; and 8, in the Pacific states.

Another striking situation is revealed by a regional distribution of the potential school population of 1940. If 100 is taken to represent the total of nearly 35 million persons, age five to nineteen years, then the approximate regional distribution would be: 6 in New England; 19 in the Middle Atlantic states; 19 in the East North Central; 16 in the South Atlantic; 10 in the East South Central; 11 in the West South Central; 10 in the West North Central; 3 in the Mountain states; and 6 in the Pacific area.[12]

Participation in State Educational Planning

Good local educational planning must be a part of state educational planning. Education is a state function. Thruout the history of American education the local community has had direct responsibility for schools and yet always with the understanding that it was performing a state function. This has stimulated local concern for education, encouraged local initiative, and aroused local pride. The teaching has been almost wholly a matter of local effort and the supervision and administration have been largely local functions, but with the passing of time the state has played

[11] National Education Association, Research Division. "Schools and the 1940 Census." *Research Bulletin* 19: 203-31; November 1941. p. 215.

[12] National Education Association, Research Division, *op. cit.*, p. 213.

a larger role in administrative affairs and in financial support. The local educational authorities and those of the state department of education steadily have been brought closer together in planning educational programs. Neither can be strong or highly effective without the cooperation of the other. The wide range of inter-community relationships is developing steadily in such a way as to make an integration of efforts imperative. Furthermore the educational efforts are related directly to financial support, with the result that increased subsidies from the state naturally bring about a closer coalition in organization and administration. Local control puts into effect the minimum state plan, adapts it to local situations, and then enriches and improves it.

It is difficult to make comparisons among the several states as to the percentage of school support which comes from the state since the schemes for dispensing state financial aid differ widely. Taking into account these variations as to how and for what specific purposes the monies are apportioned, we still can get a good working understanding of the scope and the differences. We find, for example, that Delaware stands at the top of the list with the state contributing 92.1 percent of the total costs of Delaware schools in 1941-42. New Mexico is next, having furnished 74.0

TABLE 5.—TEN HIGHEST AND TEN LOWEST STATES IN PROPORTION OF FINANCIAL AID FROM STATE SOURCES, 1941-42

Ten states ranking highest in state financial aid, 1941-42		Ten states ranking lowest in state financial aid, 1941-42	
	Percent		*Percent*
Delaware	92.1	Connecticut	10.0
New Mexico	74.0	South Dakota	9.4
North Carolina	70.9	New Jersey	9.4
Georgia	64.9	Illinois	9.2
Alabama	59.5	New Hampshire	6.2
Louisiana	58.6	Wyoming	6.0
Washington	57.2	Colorado	5.8
Arizona	54.9	Iowa	1.2
West Virginia	50.8	Nebraska	0.9
South Carolina	49.9	Oregon	0.4

percent of the current costs of its schools in 1941-42, and North Carolina at 70.9 percent is third. These are findings reported by the U. S. Office of Education in 1944. A tabulation from this report shows the ten states highest and ten states lowest in percentage of state aid; see Table 5.[13]

Such facts as these are never quite up to date, and they should be so interpreted by the reader. New legislation on state financial aid is continuously under consideration, and changes and adjustments are constantly being made. (See also Chapter VI.)

COOPERATION WITH INDUSTRIAL AND GOVERNMENTAL PROGRAMS

Thruout this chapter it has been emphasized repeatedly that education does not and cannot stand alone. The public-school system must cooperate with all other institutions and agencies which contribute to the common good. Industrial programs should be taken into account when educational plans are being made, but, even before they are made, there should be a mutual understanding between representatives of industry and education as to community needs and how they can best be met. Closely related to the plans of private industrial organizations and individual planning are the great departments in the federal and state governments which by their nature must sponsor plans for the future. This is particularly true in state departments of commerce, agriculture, welfare, labor, and health. Others might be listed, as they vary according to the organization of state government. The plans of a state highway department may be related vitally to educational planning—not merely as a matter of roads, tho they are important as they lead from home to school, but as the nature of the whole transportation network determines the cultural development and welfare of all the people.

Boards of education, as they continue their responsibilities from month to month and year to year, in formulating policies and planning for better schools for the future, owe it to the people they represent to do their full part in coordinating their efforts with all general institutional planning for the future. The educational system cannot and should not do all the planning nor should it be given all the responsibility, but neither should it be pushed

[13] U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency. "Statistics of State School Systems, 1939-40 and 1941-42." *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States.* Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, 1944. Vol. 2, Chapter 3, p. 24.

aside as being of secondary importance. No social institution within a democracy stands higher than public education, but being an integral part of the democratic structure it must not assume a special superiority. It is a vital social institution and without it a democratic society cannot survive, but education, on the other hand, cannot be what it ought to be unless it is geared into the whole institutional life of the community.

MEMBERSHIP IN STATE SCHOOL BOARD ASSOCIATIONS

There are now in existence about thirty[14] state school board associations which are contributing to the thinking of many board members, and hence to the policies of the boards of which they are members. Overn summarizes the purposes of these associations as follows: (a) to advance and improve the services performed by the public schools, (b) to promote desirable educational legislation, (c) to study the administration and more economical organization of school districts, (d) to study problems of cooperation with other public agencies interested in education, and (e) to discuss any educational questions of interest to school board members.[15]

Grieder and Romine, reporting information for 1944, have made further interesting analyses of this movement as to its history, the various patterns of organization to be found in the several states, and the extent to which districts are represented in such associations.

The tendency has been to establish membership by boards; hence the board responsible for the largest system in a state counts as one member just as the board in the smallest district counts as one member. This fact tends to suggest a distortion when the membership is reported in "percentage of boards holding memberships." For example, in the New York association the board of education in New York City, responsible for an educational system enrolling over a million pupils counts *in percentage* neither more nor less than a board for a district in which only one pupil is enrolled. Illinois illustrates this point well since there are about twelve thousand school boards in the state and about eight hundred

[14] In 1944, according to Grieder, there were twenty-nine active state school board associations; in 1945 there were twenty-seven, according to Campbell (*School and Society*, October 27, 1945, p. 276-78). The twenty-seven states according to Campbell are: California, Colorado, Connecticut, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Tennessee, Utah, Virginia, Washington, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

[15] Overn, Alfred V. *Handbook for Public School Boards*. Mount Vernon, N. Y.: New York State School Boards Association, 1940. p. 149.

are members of the state association. If the percentages were based upon numbers of pupils, or teachers, or schoolrooms, or capital investments, the results would make a different impression.

Membership and fees have recently been summarized as follows:

> Graduated fees range from $1 to $3 per board in South Dakota at one end of the scale, and from $5 to $200 per board in New York at the other end. Uniform fees range from $2.50 for any board in Wyoming to $25 in Louisiana. Associations extending membership on an individual basis charge $1 or $2 annually. Georgia is the only state reporting no fees for membership.
>
> Dues are the major source of income and yield from $120 to $20,000 per year, the median being approximately $1,200. Thirteen associations have no other source of income. Only one reported subventions from state funds (Illinois, $7,500 per year); two are partly supported by state education associations; four derive income from sale of publications, advertisements in publications, sale of exhibit space at conventions, and subscriptions to periodicals.
>
> Fourteen associations pay for services rendered by officers or staff. Of these, eight limit payment to executive secretary or secretary-treasurer, some of whom are part-time workers.[16]

Other statistics on date of founding, enrolments, and total annual income are given in Table 6.

Plans are under way to reestablish a state association, which at one time existed but is currently inactive, in Arkansas, North Dakota, Ohio, and Texas. In some of the states that have had no school board organization, for example, Maine, Massachusetts, and New Hampshire, plans for a new association are being laid. With three-fourths of the states organized, or in the process of organizing, it is expected that the National Council of State School Board Associations, which has been inactive since 1942, will be reestablished in the near future. Among the stronger, more influential associations are those of California, Colorado, Illinois, Michigan, New York, North Carolina, and Pennsylvania. Several associations employ full-time executive secretaries and publish regular bulletins or journals. The special studies and reports recently published by the California, Illinois, and New York associations have received favorable attention thruout the nation and have exerted wholesome influence in these states.

The general effects of this movement have been sound and wholesome. Thru the services of such an association a board

[16] Grieder, Calvin, and Romine, Stephen A. "A Half Century of State School-Board Associations." *American School Board Journal*, 110: 29-30, March; 27-28, April 1945.

TABLE 6.—STATE SCHOOL BOARD ASSOCIATIONS, 1944

State	Date of founding	Approximate percent of boards enrolled	Approximate total annual income
1	2	3	4
1. Arkansas[a]	....	....	.....
2. California	1931	28	$5,000
3. Colorado	1940	7	1,500
4. Connecticut	1938	100	600
5. Florida	1930	84	1,750
6. Georgia	[b]	[c]	None
7. Idaho	1942	16	640
8. Illinois	1913	7	23,000
9. Iowa	1928	6	1,100
10. Kansas	1918	2	600
11. Kentucky	1936	31	1,000
12. Louisiana	1938	100	1,675
13. Michigan	[b]	[c]	[b]
14. Minnesota	1921	40	7,000
15. Missouri	1936[d]	2	[b]
16. Montana	1926	8	1,400
17. Nebraska	1919	3	1,200
18. New Jersey	1913	100	5,000
19. New York	1919	12	21,000
20. North Carolina	1937	84	435
21. North Dakota[a]	....	....	.....
22. Ohio[a]	....	....	.....
23. Pennsylvania	1896	77	12,700
24. Rhode Island	1930	[c]	250
25. South Dakota	1938	2	120
26. Tennessee	1939	[c]	[b]
27. Texas[a]	1941	....	.....
28. Utah	1923	100	700–3,200
29. Vermont	1930	65	[b]
30. Virginia	1934	73	500
31. Washington	[b]	[c]	200
32. Wisconsin	1920	5	2,500
33. Wyoming	1934	24	225

Source: Grieder, Calvin, and Romine, Stephen A. "A Half Century of State School-Board Associations." *American School Board Journal* 110: 30; March 1945.

[a] Inactive.

[b] No data.

[c] Enrolment by individuals, not by boards.

[d] Originally founded in 1936, inactive for several years, and reconstituted in 1943.

member has an opportunity to learn of practices and problems characteristic of other boards. He becomes more fully oriented as to his responsibilities and his opportunities as important issues in public education are presented at state meetings. Experts from the state education department make it a point to be present at meetings to answer technical questions and advise on suitable procedures. Legal experts give interpretations of school laws and cite important court decisions. Proposed legislation is always of interest and its early discussion will almost invariably contribute to its value, in either changes of provisions or a better understanding of its nature and purpose. Such an association tends to overcome narrow provincialism. It brings representatives of large and small districts together in such a way that each may learn from the other. The united effort necessary to bring such an organization into existence and the sustained cooperation required to keep it going arouse such a degree of interest in the high purpose of boards of education that far-reaching benefits regularly accrue. The sense of belonging to a voluntary association devoted to the great common cause of public education buoys up the average school board member in a way that perhaps no other agency can.

Successful associations have found it desirable to have memberships held by local school boards (not by individual board members, because of the rapid turnover) and to have dues paid by the boards from public funds, usually on a sliding scale in accordance with the ability to pay.

Education in a Dynamic World

We, the American people, are being swept along in a dynamic world in which events of the greatest magnitude occur at a rate that we can scarcely comprehend. Twice within a generation we have been drawn into the vortex of worldwide war and have suffered all the economic, political, and social strains which inevitably accompany such intense social interaction. Every sustaining line which supports human culture has been strained. Men who donned the uniform in 1917-18 have seen both their sons and daughters turn to the armed forces and the tasks of war. Armies and navies have become vastly larger than ever before

and the regimentation of civilian life has reached a new high level. We do live in a dynamic world.

There has been no such increase before in the tempo of American life as that of the last three decades, but the dynamics of today rise upon the foundations of yesterday and many of our social foundations have been laid with exceeding care. Not the least of these—indeed it may well be termed the cornerstone itself—is that of public education. The public-school system, from pioneer days in remote communities to the driving industrial centers of the present moment, has been held as a great universal good to be sustained as an absolute essential thru every social change and hardship.

No other social institution belongs quite so completely to all the people. The child without home or family has as many rights in the public school as any other. He may be an orphan, lonely, ill, and undernourished, but he may enter the public school. No legal restrictions of rights are maintained by the public schools because of economic status, social levels, political affiliations, or creed. It is this high degree of universality which should give at once an inspiration and a sobering sense of responsibility to any person set apart by the public, in any place and by any plan, to serve as an educational trustee for our public schools. The school board member is in a peculiar sense the trustee of all that education means—for what it has contributed in the past, its force at the present time, and what it can mean to the future. He is asked to be historian, prophet, and a genius in dealing with the present.

The board of education leads in educational policy-making and yet it is guided by the public, not alone by expressed public opinion but also by the nature and purposes of the public so far as they can be observed. The board of education is expected to be well out on the frontiers of educational thought and to press the professional staff to make the most of these frontiers. Obviously education will play its full part in preserving the culture which has been found to be good and it will strive to meet present demands, but if it is to serve all the people well it must lay great stress upon the future. Education deals in futures! Nor dare the board of education be content to deal only with technological courses based upon natural sciences. These are good and essential, but without the preparation of all pupils in the technology of social adjustment,

based upon the social sciences, the results may be not only weak but actually disastrous. Changes are going on in both areas. They are more readily seen in developments from the natural sciences than in developments from the social sciences. In transportation anyone can comprehend the difference between a horse and buggy and an automobile, but the meaning of a system of social security in contrast to the expediency of passing a hat is less obvious to vast numbers of our people. This best suggests something of the great areas in which education must play a part. Boards of education will receive little criticism if they expend large sums of money on new machines for training youth for industry, but if they spend relatively small amounts on a program which may lead the youth to replace outmoded machines of local government they may find themselves in a violent storm center. But the school board member, if he is indeed a trustee of the educational well-being of all the people, will be sensitive to trends, needs, and dynamic changes in any or all phases of our American life and then, having verified his facts so far as verification can be made, he will, in cooperation with his fellow members, reach an honest decision. Then they together will put it into practice with all the wisdom and courage they can muster.

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See also items 38, 44, and 60.

Educational Trends . . .

1. Wider application of the principle that an acceptable minimum of educational opportunity should be available to every individual regardless of his economic status

2. General improvement of programs to develop physical and mental health

3. Greater emphasis upon intelligent self-direction in study and learning

4. Increased opportunity for learning how to do, particularly thru work experience in vocational programs

5. Increased opportunity for learning and practicing the ways of democratic group living

6. More systematic adaptation of teaching methods, content, and length of schooling to individual and social needs

7. Broader cultural background and greater technical knowledge and skill on the part of all professional staff members

8. Reorganization and enlargement of local school districts and the integration of state educational facilities in the interest of efficient and economical school programs

9. General acceptance of the principle that public education should receive its financial support from all levels of government—local, state, and national.—*Proposals for Public Education in Postwar America,* National Education Association, 1944.

OFFICIAL RECORDS

Due to postwar conditions, the copy for this yearbook went to the printer in November, too early to include the report of the executive secretary for the calendar year 1945. The secretary's report will be published in the *Official Report* of the addresses and proceedings of the regional conferences.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

A Department of the National Education Association of the United States

Officers 1945–46

President

CHARLES H. LAKE, Superintendent of Schools, Cleveland, Ohio

First Vicepresident

N. L. ENGELHARDT, Associate Superintendent of Schools, New York, New York

Second Vicepresident

W. FRANK WARREN, Superintendent of Schools, Durham, North Carolina

Executive Secretary

SHERWOOD D. SHANKLAND, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

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JOHN L. BRACKEN, Superintendent of Schools, Clayton, Missouri

HENRY H. HILL, President, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee

HOBART M. CORNING, Superintendent of Schools, Omaha, Nebraska

The President, First and Second Vicepresidents, *ex officio*

TABLE 1.—MEMBERSHIP BY STATES FOR THE YEARS 1940-1945 AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

Formerly the Department of Superintendence

State	1940 St. Louis	1941 Atlantic City	1942 San Francisco	1943 No convention	1944 Regional meetings	1945 No convention
Alabama	66	61	50	48	85	80
Arizona	24	23	28	34	38	33
Arkansas	45	36	29	27	37	47
California	150	153	1,214	254	244	246
Colorado	59	60	62	57	73	65
Connecticut	71	92	67	57	94	75
Delaware	19	25	18	17	26	21
District of Columbia	71	66	67	65	73	63
Florida	17	21	20	24	30	26
Georgia	63	63	49	45	150	78
Idaho	8	10	12	13	27	20
Illinois	352	331	273	270	483	321
Indiana	114	101	96	95	140	115
Iowa	107	82	86	79	128	90
Kansas	115	95	82	76	180	113
Kentucky	56	49	39	35	52	44
Louisiana	47	43	37	36	38	39
Maine	22	23	20	17	28	26
Maryland	69	76	60	55	77	61
Massachusetts	161	174	138	150	202	180
Michigan	223	231	175	175	334	249
Minnesota	110	99	93	88	120	104
Mississippi	44	40	37	34	43	37
Missouri	184	140	128	119	223	169
Montana	13	15	20	22	22	19
Nebraska	57	48	45	41	52	50
Nevada	3	4	4	4	4	4
New Hampshire	30	37	25	25	39	30
New Jersey	234	287	212	206	276	237
New Mexico	29	18	23	19	21	18
New York	379	417	319	319	414	365
North Carolina	60	63	55	50	89	72
North Dakota	15	16	18	15	20	15
Ohio	261	251	187	175	253	226
Oklahoma	60	55	45	41	72	53
Oregon	25	29	38	27	53	40
Pennsylvania	334	401	279	274	391	319
Rhode Island	38	42	32	29	40	37
South Carolina	36	37	30	29	71	51
South Dakota	24	15	18	14	22	21
Tennessee	43	44	28	30	55	48
Texas	244	227	229	191	275	230
Utah	25	24	31	23	30	25
Vermont	26	24	22	21	28	51
Virginia	61	75	56	51	76	72
Washington	27	28	35	34	141	84
West Virginia	47	46	40	36	53	50
Wisconsin	131	129	106	102	184	139
Wyoming	14	13	13	11	14	15
Alaska	3	1	.....	1	3	2
Argentina	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	1
Bahamas	1	1	1	.....	.....	.....
Canada	11	11	11	11	14	11
Canal Zone	1	2	.....	.....	.....	.....
Guam	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	.....
Hawaii	2	1	3	3	3	3
India	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Iraq	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	.....
Mexico	1	.....	1	1	1	1
Philippine Islands	2	6	2	.....	.....	.....
Puerto Rico	4	8	5	4	3	2
Total	4,439	4,470	4,814	3,680	5,644	4,593

NOTE: The count includes 4,408 members who paid dues for the year 1945, 12 honorary members, 171 life or twenty-five-year members, and 2 six-year members.

THE CONSTITUTION AND BYLAWS

The American Association of School Administrators

A Department of the National Education Association of the United States

Adopted at New Orleans, Louisiana, February 1937

CONSTITUTION

Article I—Name

The name of this Association shall be the American Association of School Administrators, a department of the National Education Association of the United States.

Article II—Object

The object of this Association shall be to maintain and elevate the professional and ethical standards of the teaching profession in general and its administrative and supervisory service in particular, and to promote activities which will look toward the accomplishment of the following objectives: to assist its members to understand the development of American culture in its relationship to education; to assist its members to develop an understanding of the fields, services, and responsibilities of education; to achieve a unified professional strength for the improvement of education; and to place before the public the facts and viewpoints which will lead to an intelligent appreciation of the work of the schools.

Article III—Membership

Section 1. Memberships in the American Association of School Administrators shall consist of active, associate, life, and honorary.

Section 2. All persons shall be eligible to active membership who are members of the National Education Association, and who are engaged in supervisory and administrative positions—namely, state, county, and city superintendents, and associate, assistant, and deputy state, county, and city superintendents, and supervisory and administrative officers in city and county school systems exercising the functions of associate, assistant, or deputy superintendents; all state and national officers of educational administration; the heads of teacher-training institutions, colleges, and universities having departments or colleges of education, the heads of these departments or colleges of education, and professors of school administration or supervision in these institutions.

Section 3. All members of the National Education Association who are actively engaged in any phase of school work may become associate members of this Association by paying the regular membership fee, and shall

be entitled to all the privileges of this Association except the right to vote and hold office.

SECTION 4. All members of the National Education Association who have been engaged in supervisory or administrative positions as defined in Section 2 of this article, and who have retired from such service, may have the privilege of honorary membership in this Association upon recommendation of the Executive Committee.

SECTION 5. All members of the National Education Association who are eligible to active membership in the American Association of School Administrators shall become life members of the Association upon the payment of a membership fee of $100, which may be made in ten equal annual payments, or upon securing a contribution of $250 to the Permanent Educational Research Fund, which may be paid in five equal annual installments. All such contributions and life membership fees shall become a part of the Permanent Educational Research Fund. Life members shall be exempt from the payment of all other membership fees in the American Association of School Administrators, and shall have all the rights and privileges of active members.

SECTION 6. The Executive Committee shall have power to pass upon the credentials of all applicants for membership, in accordance with the provisions of the preceding sections of this article.

ARTICLE IV—OFFICERS

SECTION 1. The officers of this Association shall be a President, a First Vicepresident (who shall be the retiring President), a Second Vicepresident, an Executive Secretary, and four members of the Executive Committee who, with the other officers of this Association, with the exception of the Executive Secretary, shall constitute the Executive Committee.

SECTION 2. The President and Vicepresidents shall hold office for the period of one year, from March 15 following their election.

SECTION 3. The Executive Secretary shall be selected by the Executive Committee for an indefinite period.

SECTION 4. Members of the Executive Committee shall hold office for four years, commencing March 15 following the date of election, one member retiring each year. At the first election the member receiving the largest number of votes shall serve for a term of four years and the others for three, two, and one years, respectively, according to the number of votes received.

ARTICLE V—ELECTION OF OFFICERS

SECTION 1. The election of the President shall be conducted by mailing an annual preferential ballot to all active members of the Association. The primary preferential ballot shall call for three nominations, designated as

first, second, and third choices. The names of the five persons receiving the highest number of votes in this primary preferential ballot shall be submitted in a final preferential ballot, on which active members shall again indicate their first, second, and third choices. The primary ballot shall be mailed on or before October 1 and returned not later than midnight of October 21. The final ballot shall be mailed not later than December 1 and returned not later than midnight of December 21. The person who receives the preferential plurality in the final ballot shall be declared elected by the Executive Committee. On or before February 1 the Board of Tellers shall officially certify and announce the results of the election.

SECTION 2. The procedure for the election of officers other than the President shall be as follows: Nominations shall be made from the floor at the conclusion of the general session held on the morning of the third day of the annual meeting.

SECTION 3. Method of balloting—The membership cards issued by the Executive Secretary of the Association to the members shall be provided with a detachable stub, to be exchanged for a ballot.

Suitable places for the balloting shall be provided and announced in the official program. One of the ballot boxes shall be at the main entrance to the auditorium in which the general sessions are held.

The ballot boxes shall be open for voting from 11 A. M. until 6 P. M. on the fourth day of the annual meeting.

Those candidates receiving the highest number of votes for the respective offices shall be considered the choice of the Association, and declared elected.

SECTION 4. Announcement of the results of balloting—At the last regular business session, the President shall call for the report of the Executive Secretary, announcing the result of the ballot cast for the several officers of the Association. In case of a tie vote, the Executive Committee shall cast lots to determine the successful candidate.

SECTION 5. The Board of Tellers, the Executive Committee, and the Executive Secretary shall be in charge of the entire procedure of balloting for all officers.

ARTICLE VI—STANDING COMMITTEES

The standing committees of this Association shall consist of a Resolutions Committee, an Audit Committee, and a Board of Tellers of three members. Other committees may be authorized by the Executive Committee or the Association from time to time.

ARTICLE VII—ANNUAL MEETING

The annual meeting of this Association shall be held on the fourth Sunday in February, and the four succeeding days.

ARTICLE VIII—AMENDMENTS

This Constitution may be altered or amended at any annual meeting by two-thirds vote of the active members present, the proposed amendment having been submitted in writing at the previous annual meeting.

BYLAWS

ARTICLE I—DUTIES OF OFFICERS

SECTION 1. It shall be the duty of the President to preside or to arrange for presiding officers at all meetings and in conjunction with the Executive Committee to prepare programs for the annual meeting of the Association; to appoint all committees not otherwise provided for. He shall be chairman and a member of the Executive Committee, and shall call meetings of this Committee whenever he deems it necessary, or whenever he is requested so to do by a majority of the members of the Committee. He shall perform all other duties appertaining to his office.

SECTION 2. In the absence of the President, the Vicepresidents shall preside in turn. In case of vacancy in the office of President, the Second Vicepresident shall at once succeed to the office of President.

SECTION 3. The Executive Secretary shall keep a complete and accurate record of the proceedings of all meetings of the Association and all meetings of the Executive Committee; shall conduct the business of the Association as provided by the Constitution and Bylaws; and in all matters not definitely prescribed therein be under the direction of the Executive Committee, and in the absence of direction by the Executive Committee, shall be under the direction of the President. He shall receive all moneys due the Association and transmit them monthly to the Executive Secretary of the National Education Association; shall countersign all bills approved for payment by the Executive Committee or by the President in the interval between meetings of the Executive Committee. He shall have his records present at all meetings of the Association and Executive Committee. He shall keep a list of members of the Association and shall revise said list annually. He shall be Secretary of the Executive Committee and custodian of all property of the Association. He shall give such bond as may be required by the Executive Committee. He shall submit an annual report to the Executive Committee at each annual meeting. At the expiration of his term of office he shall turn over to his successor in office all money, books, and property of the Association. He shall serve during the pleasure of the Executive Committee.

ARTICLE II—DUTIES OF COMMITTEES

SECTION 1. The Executive Committee shall assist the President in arranging the annual program. It shall fix the place of the annual meeting.

It shall select an Executive Secretary for an indefinite term and fix his salary.

It shall authorize the appointment of special commissions for investigation and research. It shall determine the amount of money to be expended in such investigations, but in no case shall it incur debt. It shall determine what departments of the National Education Association and what other educational organizations shall be invited to hold meetings with this Association.

SECTION 2. The Resolutions and Audit Committees and the Board of Tellers shall be appointed by the President and shall make their reports at the next annual meeting succeeding their appointment.

ARTICLE III—DUES

The dues of this Association shall be $5 per year for both active and associate members, and shall be paid annually to the Executive Secretary.

ARTICLE IV—VACANCIES

All vacancies occurring in any office other than that of President shall be filled by the Executive Committee.

ARTICLE V—RULES OF ORDER

Robert's Rules of Order shall govern in all business meetings of this Association.

ARTICLE VI—AMENDMENTS

These Bylaws may be amended at any annual meeting of this Association by a majority vote of the members present, the amendment having been submitted in writing at the previous annual meeting.

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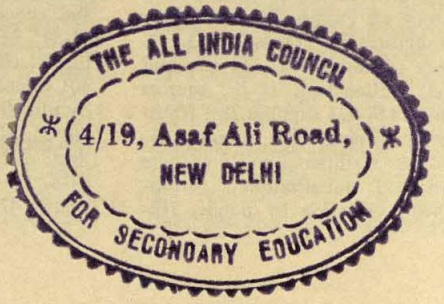

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